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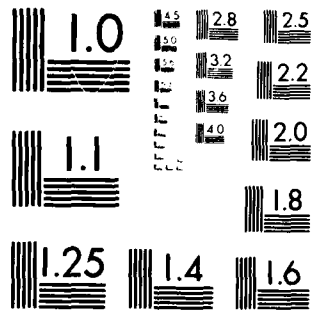
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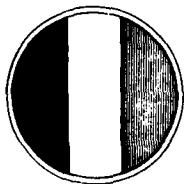
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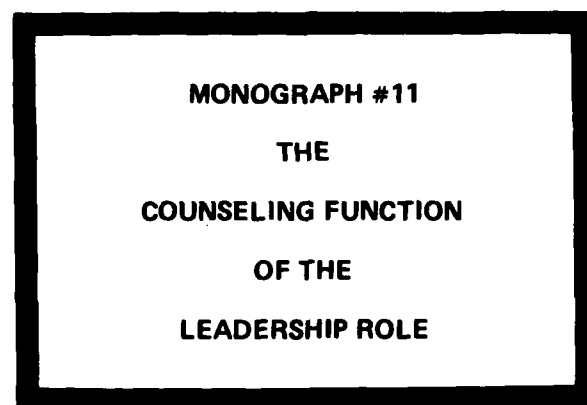


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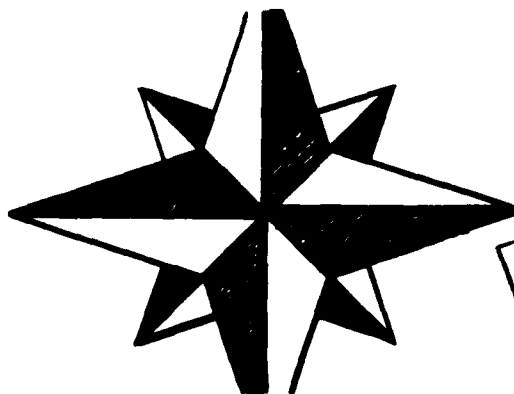
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LEADERSHIP FOR THE 1970s



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Leadership Monograph Series

(AD-A090 479)

This monograph is an elaboration of the counseling dimension identified as one of nine essential organizational leadership dimensions in leadership Monograph No. 8, A Matrix of Organizational Leadership Dimensions (1976). It attempts to clarify the purpose, scope, and skills inherent in the counseling function of the leadership role. Drawing upon selected counseling literature, the intent is to provide Army leaders, curriculum developers, and instructors with an understanding of the specific behaviorally based competencies that constitute effective counseling.

^{THIS}
The monograph is not offered as a how-to-counsel handbook with solutions for the myriad of situations that arise calling for counseling skills. It is instead intended to be a publication that generates discussion and that offers direction for those who are concerned with improving counseling training programs in the Army and individual counseling proficiency.

The views expressed in this monograph are those of the author and not necessarily those of the Department of Defense, Department of the Army, or the U.S. Army Administration Center.

Your comments, criticisms, and contributions beneficial to improving this publication or to identifying future research topics are welcome. Correspondence should be addressed to this headquarters, ADMINCEN, ATTN: ATZI-CD-HRD.

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UNITED STATES ARMY ADMINISTRATION CENTER
LEADERSHIP MONOGRAPH SERIES

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Leadership for the 1970's.
THE COUNSELING FUNCTION OF THE LEADERSHIP ROLE.

10/ DONNA B. AYRES

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Foreword

This monograph emphasizes skills as opposed to counseling approaches (e.g., directive vs. non-directive) or theories (e.g., Rogerian, Gestalt, Rational-Emotive, Behaviorism). The purpose of this emphasis is to identify skills which are observable and teachable behaviors and which provide Army leaders with a basic understanding of the essentials of effective counseling. The specific and concrete skills described in this monograph can help leaders in their counselor-practitioner role to carry out personal, performance, and career counseling responsibilities. References are provided throughout the text for those who desire background or additional information.

This monograph is for the person who is interested in developing or refining his or her counseling ability. It is not intended to change personal styles of relating to others. Counseling skills are important to the leader for changing behavior in a specified direction by helping a soldier deal with a personal or performance problem. Counseling skills can also help a leader be confrontative or directive. But, the counseling session used as a forum for unleashing anger is doomed to elicit less than optimal behavior change. If expression of anger is necessary, two sessions should be set up: one for ventilating and another for counseling. This monograph is intended to help leaders be better counselors in the second kind of session and trainers be better instructors.

Introduction

The counseling role is often associated with a therapeutic situation in which a highly trained individual "ministers" to another person in need of some form of psychological assistance. Most people are inclined to associate counseling activities with a narrow range of settings: hospitals, clinics, private professional practice, mental health centers, school guidance offices and the like. Counselors, then, are typically seen as therapists who address personal problems. Rarely is the counseling role identified as an obvious aspect of the leadership role. On the contrary, it is generally assumed that leaders, managers, supervisors, administrators, and others in similar positions are busy planning, directing, making decisions, and organizing. Yet few would deny that the job of leader in the Army involves the need to counsel or to help others. Although commissioned and non-commissioned officers often engage in personal and performance counseling activities, they frequently perceive the counseling function, especially when it involves soldiers' personal affairs, to be the responsibility of a staff specialist, such as the chaplain or designated Army Community Services (ACS) staff member.

The purpose of this monograph is to examine the counseling function of the leadership role to identify specific skills that will enable Army leaders to better perform their counseling duties. This emphasis on the leader's counseling responsibilities is not to suggest that a leader should function primarily as a counselor; rather, the intent is to focus attention on an often underemphasized dimension of the leader's job.

The first chapter is a discussion of typical situations that people in leadership positions encounter, leadership duties that suggest counseling activities, and the rationale for focusing on counseling skills as an integral part of the leadership role. In addition, particular structural limitations placed on the counseling function in a military environment will be reviewed. Chapter Two is an examination of the counseling process -- its purpose, goals, stages -- and the communication process as it suggests specific interpersonal skills. In Chapter Three the focus is upon a more detailed exploration of counseling skills in terms of behavioral groupings as opposed to general traits; a basic outline of skill emphasis by organizational level is also presented. Chapter Four is a discussion of learning/training models designed to impart the skills, in turn suggesting revisions to formal counseling training in the TRADOC Service School system. The last chapter is devoted to a summary and discussion of the counseling function of the leadership role, offering a behavioral profile of the effective and ineffective leader in the counselor role.

Section One

The Leader as Counselor

Introduction

The complexities of today's world make effective leadership a difficult task. As the noted organizational consultant, Harry Levinson, has remarked, "the typical executive today has to deal with many extremely complex tasks for which he or she has had almost no preparation." Effective coping with such complexities requires a conceptual background in what Levinson refers to as "the psychological aspects of management." Counseling skill is one psychological aspect of management. According to Levinson, leaders should receive as much counseling training as they do training in skills pertinent to traditional leadership functions (e.g., controlling, directing, organizing, planning, etc.). It is erroneous to assume that leaders can always cope successfully with daily problems and situations just because they have attained leadership positions. Although effective leaders may already be effective counselors, it will assist them to learn counseling skills in a systematic way. Most likely, the leader who develops counseling skills will see an improvement in his or her interpersonal relations, communication effectiveness, and ability to solve problems.

If the leader does not successfully perform the counseling role someone else must emerge in an organization to carry out this organizationally essential function. As Brammer (1973) states, almost all bureaucratic organizations have an "indigenous counselor," someone who informally functions to clarify issues and decision processes, using counseling skills beyond sheer conventional advice-giving. In fact, Eilbert (1958) found in a survey of several organizations that 87% of line managers engaged in some type of counseling activity with their employees. Huseman, Lahiff, and Hatfield (1976) concluded that "many supervisors, in fact, serve as almost daily sounding boards with regard to normal family or job-related problems" (p. 170).

In the Army, leaders often informally counsel. A platoon sergeant asks a belligerent troop why he or she is angry, a company commander calls in a lieutenant to ask why the officer's platoon has not done well in a training exercise, a squad leader praises his squad for an outstanding maneuver, the staff sergeant describes performance standards to a newly formed unit, the lieutenant colonel notices that a peer is suddenly drinking to excess and makes a concerned comment, and the brigade commander writes a well-deserved letter of commendation for a battalion commander. All are applying counseling skills.

Although leaders may intuitively realize how important their counseling responsibilities are, these responsibilities tend to be ill-defined. Historically, those aspects of the leadership role that have received emphasis in the Army are activities encompassing command, tactical, controlling, planning, directing, and organizing functions. Even though it is assumed that those in leadership positions will have to do some personal and performance counseling, training in counseling skills is minimal. Typical counseling instruction is a few class hours devoted to discussion about counseling principles and the kinds of situations requiring counseling that one is likely to encounter. Specifics about how to counsel are generally lacking. Consequently, counseling-related skills are left to on-the-job development. Given the importance of counseling ability to leadership effectiveness, it is useful to explore the counseling function of the leadership role in order to describe how leaders can be better counselors and, therefore, better leaders.

Why Emphasize Counseling Skills?

The military command hierarchy establishes the framework for many counseling sessions in the Army. The typical counseling session initiated by a leader involves performance counseling: when a soldier's performance becomes noticeably unsatisfactory, he or she is called into the commander's or supervisor's office for a reprimand. Thus, the most common counseling context in the Army involving a leader and subordinate is the reprimand session. Always present in this situation is the power differential separating the soldier from the leader. In this context, the counseling session is mandatory and is aimed at eliminating unsatisfactory or deviant behavior. The communication flow is usually one-sided, downward, and judgmental. Whereas the leader has the opportunity to express disappointment and frustration, even to ventilate anger, the soldier has no recourse but to listen quietly and respectfully. If the soldier is not asked for an explanation of the events leading to the reprimand session, the leader may well attack a symptom and leave the cause untreated. The issue should be whether or not the soldier's behavior will change in the intended direction; often it does not.

The following scenario, based on an actual case, highlights the adverse, although unintended, consequences of ineffective counseling:

CPT Smith, the company commander, had become extremely annoyed with SGT Jones for continually arriving late in the morning and for leaving work early without asking permission of his supervisors. Finally, when the absences became disruptive to unit morale, CPT Smith called SGT Jones into his

office. Without asking for an explanation, CPT Smith proceeded to reprimand the sergeant, calling him undependable, worthless, and totally incompetent.

Expectedly, the soldier in the above situation would listen to the verbal harangue without saying anything, leaving the commander's office with only a "Yes, Sir, it won't happen again." Whether or not the sergeant subsequently would improve his performance by keeping regular work hours would not be guaranteed by his pledge, and the only measure of his progress would be the absence of future unsatisfactory episodes. Another reprimand could seriously damage the sergeant's career and additionally frustrate and anger both the soldier and the commander. In the actual case, however, the sergeant broke down and cried the instant the harsh personal attack began. He then informed his commander about his wife's increasing infidelity and his son's drug habit. Clearly, knowledge of these problems would have afforded the commander valuable information useful for handling the sergeant's unsatisfactory work performance. But when the sergeant offered his explanation, the captain felt powerless to help because he had already damaged the level of trust necessary to be able to help by opening the session with an attack; therefore, he had to refer the soldier's problem to someone else.

The point of the above example is to emphasize that one's leadership effectiveness can be handicapped by a failure to appreciate the relationship between subordinates' personal and professional lives, an appreciation that will enhance a leader's ability to integrate subordinates' personal needs with the organization's needs. To concentrate only upon the disruptive effect of deviant behavior without exploring the reasons underlying such behavior is to focus on the symptoms of the problem without concern for its causes. Leadership effectiveness is enhanced by productive two-way communication with others. Counseling skills can assist a leader to respond more adequately in those situations where good communication promotes the exchange of information and the formation of a relationship affording help to subordinates. Two specific case studies highlight the importance of counseling skills for those occupying leadership positions.

Case 1.

Two days after engaging in performance counseling with a motor sergeant (a sergeant first class) about poorly kept records and log books, the platoon leader (a first lieutenant) received a telephone call from the obviously intoxicated motor sergeant asking him to come over to his apartment to discuss a severe personal problem. Instead of going

then, the lieutenant asked the sergeant to report to his office the next morning, which the sergeant did. After apologizing for having called the platoon leader the previous evening, the motor sergeant divulged that his drinking had become a regular habit over the previous year. When the platoon leader asked if the problem prompting the telephone call still existed, the sergeant was somewhat evasive but asked that the lieutenant read a letter stored in the troop safe. The letter revealed that the sergeant's wife had become pregnant by another man during one of her husband's short unaccompanied tours. Upon asking the first sergeant for further details about the motor sergeant, the lieutenant learned that the first sergeant was aware of the motor sergeant's tardiness for work, occasional grogginess and unresponsiveness, and increasing isolationism. He also discovered that the motor sergeant's wife worked a 3-11 p.m. hospital shift, leaving her husband at home to babysit six children, ages 2-16. A few days later, the platoon leader approached the motor sergeant in the motor pool office. At first hesitant to speak, the sergeant soon began to talk about his loneliness and his resentment of his wife's desire to work. The lieutenant recommended individual, marriage, and alcohol abuse counseling, but the sergeant declined the suggestion, stating that he could handle his job. The lieutenant did not initiate any further contact with the motor sergeant. Two years later the sergeant was performing adequately but occasionally showing signs of heavy drinking.

Use of counseling skills could have enhanced the lieutenant's ability to help the motor sergeant. Had the officer responded immediately and sympathetically to the motor sergeant's plea for help, he would have indicated a sincere interest in the sergeant's problem. Discussing the sergeant's concerns at a site affording more privacy than a busy office setting certainly could have provided an opportunity to probe the reasons for the motor sergeant's unsatisfactory performance. Active listening skills would have permitted the lieutenant to note the sergeant's perception of his own problems. Problem-solving skills would have allowed the officer to work with the motor sergeant to arrive at an action plan to resolve the myriad of self-esteem, marital, and alcohol abuse problems plaguing the sergeant, thus allowing the sergeant a fair chance to take responsibility for arriving at a solution to his predicament. The point of such an interchange is to establish a level of trust between the leader and sergeant sufficient to encourage the sergeant to desire to resolve his own problems. Because this trust level was never established, a helping relationship was not created. In recommending that the sergeant seek help from others, the lieutenant communicated that he did not see the sergeant's problems as part of his purview, perhaps even that he was uninterested in or annoyed by them. The following example

highlights how counseling skills can help the leader to carry out his/her counseling duties.

Case 2.

About midnight one evening, the first lieutenant received a call asking him to come to the fort dispensary where the staff sergeant and his wife were being treated. Upon arrival, the lieutenant discovered that the wife was missing her front teeth and that the sergeant had second-degree scald burns on his head, neck, and right shoulder. The medical advisor quickly took the lieutenant into his office to inform him that the couple had fought earlier; the sergeant struck his wife in the mouth and she poured hot coffee over his head. The physician would release the couple only to someone who would accept responsibility for any further altercations. The lieutenant suggested following the couple to their home to discuss the situation over coffee. Upon arriving at their home, he saw that they lived in a barn reconverted into three small rooms. The accommodations were clean but sparse: whitewashed stone walls, board floors, no doors, a single ceiling light bulb, one cold water faucet over a small sink, a two-burner hot plate, and a toilet across the hall that was nothing more than a floor hole flowing into the landlord's "honey wagon." After much discussion about the couple's problems, the lieutenant identified several specific issues and suggested marriage counseling with the squadron chaplain and budget counseling with the company executive officer, steps to which the couple agreed. Within three months, they had moved to a new apartment and no further domestic and financial problems were noted. Following this incident, the lieutenant and first sergeant visited every NCO and enlisted man living off-post.

Detecting Problems

Perhaps counseling skills are needed most for perceiving and dealing with problems. When one realizes that frustration is an inevitable aspect of working life, it is easy to see how important it is to recognize the symptoms of frustration, to assess its sources, to manage its impact, and ideally to alleviate its causes so that frustration neither overwhelms subordinates, nor adversely affects organizational functioning. Since individual achievement is related to organizational mission accomplishment, subordinates' problems are detri-

mental to the mission. Therefore, soldier's frustration -- whether work-related or personal in nature -- negatively impacts on the organization. For this reason, to be effective, leaders must possess counseling skills. As Morano (1975) stated:

Managers can nurture the satisfaction of achievement needs through counseling or coaching Managers who are well trained in assessing these conditions accurately and who can provide genuine counseling can contribute enormously to the attainment of an organization's goals. (p. 501)

The successful leader is someone who can spot warning signs of problems. The astute leader becomes aware of a good performer who suddenly begins to perform below standards, who is continually distracted, who begins to drink excessively, or who is insubordinate in actions and statements. In addition to being alert to sudden changes in soldiers' behaviors and attitudes, the leader can also develop a sensitivity to the person who indirectly calls for help, by stating, "My friend has a problem." Not only is it helpful to notice changes in others' behavior, but it is also advantageous to keep in mind stressful situations producing frustration and pressure. For instance, setting expectations that are clearly unrealistic, and altering training schedules which create last-minute inconveniences and hardships for soldiers are sources of frustration. Keeping in mind that frustration can lead to apathy, hostility, depression, and indifference, the leader can be attuned to these situational pressures. Symptoms of frustration include physical aggressiveness, spreading vicious gossip, making unnecessary condescending and negative remarks, directing hostility to peers and subordinates, blaming others, displaying inappropriate behavior or dress, compulsive behavior, and sudden withdrawal. Leaders must be alert to soldiers who are or who become incompetent, undisciplined (i.e., chronically tardy or absent), disgruntled, physically handicapped or disabled, emotionally upset, or who have suffered a sudden personal, financial, or marital setback.

Specific warning signals which indicate job dissatisfaction, emotional difficulties, or a feeling of powerlessness include the following:

- 1) Unexpected unwillingness to comply with orders or to cooperate in team efforts;
- 2) Changes in personal habits (e.g., insomnia, appetite loss, sudden weight loss or gain, slovenliness or compulsiveness about dress);
- 3) Withdrawal from association with colleagues or personal friends;

- 4) Drastic mood shifts;
- 5) Bizarre behavior patterns (e.g., sabotage);
- 6) The occurrence of a crisis situation (e.g., the death of a family member, a divorce, financial problems) in a soldier's life;
- 7) Excessive use of alcohol or drugs;
- 8) A sudden inability to concentrate; lethargy;
- 9) Belligerence, deliberate attempts to defy orders, or excessive submissiveness;
- 10) Constant complaining;
- 11) Sudden forgetfulness.

There are also several organizational indicators that suggest problems: increases in the number of soldiers absent without permission (AWOL's), sick calls, delinquency reports, and Article 15's. An examination of these statistical changes may reveal, for example, that soldiers see their leaders as unapproachable, or that they are unclear about standards. In addition, racial tension, problems related to pay, and obstacles to the upward flow of communication through the chain of command highlight problem areas deserving attention. The leader's job requires counseling skills for more than just the identification of problems, however.

The Leader's Job

A leader's counseling responsibilities involve personal, performance, and career counseling related to subordinates' job demands, task assignments, work relations, professional development, financial concerns, and personal and family problems. Handling these responsibilities requires the abilities to obtain and process information and to provide feedback -- specifically, to ascertain facts, to listen for opinions, and to notice subtleties in behavior. Basically, these skills are listening and interviewing skills. They apply to all facets of the leadership role and its functions. We can see their application by examining some of the job requirements of leaders.

Army leaders have a triple role to carry out: 1) they are responsible for achieving unit goals and organizational missions; 2) they are judges who evaluate soldiers' performance for subsequent

promotion and pay decisions; and 3) they develop others into more effective and promotable workers. The triple-faceted role of the leader encompasses five job-specific operations: 1) setting objectives and intermediate goals; 2) organizing people, time, and equipment to accomplish goals; 3) communicating with and motivating subordinates; 4) assessing individual and unit performance against established yardsticks; and 5) developing subordinates by teaching them how to improve their performance (Drucker, 1974). Two major operations can be inferred from these five: controlling and developing (see MacKenzie, 1969). In order to achieve unit and organizational goals, a leader needs to be able to control. Controlling deals with measuring results against plans, rewarding performance, and correcting inadequacies and inefficiencies. Development refers to enhancing subordinates' expertise and experience by exposing them to training sessions and educational opportunities, and by assigning them to jobs compatible with their background and potential. If one defines a leader's development responsibility as "a systematic communication process that is designed to foster meaningful choices and promote adjustment that will result in the subordinate's progressive development" (Timmerman, 1976, p. 42), then one can see the role of leader as counselor emerging.

The leader as role model. The concept of influence is integral to both the leadership role and the counseling role. According to Katz and Kahn (1966), "the essence of leadership consists in the expansion of influence to such bases as expertise and personal liking" (p. 458). This suggests the idea of role modeling. Brammer (1973) defines role modeling as "a method of learning by vicarious experience or imitation, such as watching the performance of others Modeling seems to be most effective when the model has characteristics of status, competence, intelligence, and power" (pp. 145-146). Strong (1968) talked about personal attributes of the effective counselor that make him or her more influential: the effective counselor presents her- or himself as expert, attractive, and trustworthy, key ingredients of influence. By definition, then, leaders as helpers are highly visible and influential role models. According to Gazda, Asbury, Balzer, Childers, Deselle, and Walters (1973), a leader is always modeling. The gratification that subordinates derive from receiving the approval and praise of a "powerful and respected figure," such as their boss, is an important motivator. Likewise, helpers are always behavior models because helpees tend to imitate their behaviors, identify with their views, and absorb their values (Brammer, 1973).

Therefore, leaders can be powerful helpers because of their role-modeling influence; if they are poor role models, they will likely be ineffective trainers or coaches because they will be perceived as lacking credibility and will not be trusted. Trustworthiness is an important aspect of influence, credibility, communication skill, and

counseling ability (Kaul and Schmidt, 1975). Effective communicators are those who are perceived as credible and attractive; to be credible, one has to convey a degree of expertise and trustworthiness (Hovland, Janis, and Kelley, 1953). Trustworthiness also emanates from what Raven (1965) described as "legitimate" power and what Strong (1968) referred to as a counselor's "socially sanctioned role as an extender of help, a source of assistance in problems of living . . ." (p. 222). The gesture to extend help allows the helper to exert considerable influence over the person who is being helped if there is mutual trust between the two.

The leader as evaluator. Leaders also have an important responsibility to evaluate others' performance. Counseling skills are particularly apropos to the performance appraisal function because the appraisal process generally entails delivering feedback about how a subordinate measures up to performance objectives, or about the subordinate's interpersonal relations with others. Positive feedback can be a powerful motivator, especially when it is precise, well-timed, and offered with respect. The leader can deliver substantive information about how a subordinate's actual performance compares to the standards dictated by the job in a nonantagonistic way by highlighting behavioral shortcomings as opposed to criticizing personal attributes.

Despite its importance, the performance appraisal responsibility tends to be discounted. Many people see it as an unfavorable aspect of the job because it often involves the delivery of negative feedback, which most people do not like to give. For this reason, supervisors may engage in performance counseling only when it is required and thus approach it in a perfunctory manner, somewhat as drudgery. This may be because leaders do not know how to deliver feedback in a nonthreatening way. It may also be due to some confusion about the performance counseling role, which tends to place the leader in a role conflict. Herb Meyer (1972) expressed the predicament well in the following:

When a manager discusses his appraisal of a subordinate's performance with his employee, he is automatically cast in the role of judge. The subordinate becomes the defendant. If, on the other hand, responsibility for the performance review were placed in the hands of the subordinate, and if he were to bring his appraisal to the manager for discussion, the manager would be cast automatically in the role of counselor. Upon such a restructuring of roles, we would expect the subordinate to be more willing to reveal shortcomings and areas for improvement. The manager would be in a better position to provide coaching without creating the threatening atmosphere often associated with appraisals. (p. 208)

Because feedback is typically delivered by one's boss who, in the evaluator role, has control over the subordinate's career, it may easily be seen as biased, ambiguous, and open to challenge. The problem is that the subordinate or soldier may regard the feedback as a totally subjective judgment, and may either accept it defensively or reject it as inaccurate and invalid criticism. As a result, the soldier may make no effort to improve. The combined role of judge and counselor is confusing to the subordinate (Beer & Ruh, 1976). Since the objective is to have the leader create a favorable atmosphere for discussion of specific goals, perhaps it would be wise to have separate appraisal sessions addressing different purposes. As Meyer, Kay, and French (1965) have long contended, "it seems foolish to have a manager serving in the self-conflicting role as counselor (helping a man to improve his performance) when, at the same time, he is presiding as a judge over the same employee's salary action case" (p. 127).

To avoid incompatible roles, Meyer and his colleagues at General Electric developed an appraisal system designed to provide feedback and to motivate employees. It deserves some discussion because it differs from most other appraisal systems in that it promoted frequent discussions of performance (as opposed to annually), prohibited summary judgments or ratings, separated salary action discussions, emphasized mutual goal planning and problem solving between superior and subordinate, and focused on realistic and intermediate short-term goals. This approach has an advantage over traditional approaches because it fosters an adult-to-adult rather than parent-to-child relationship, allowing the subordinate to better or more easily take the initiative in setting performance goals. As Meyer et al. (1965) emphasized, "in listening to the subordinate's review of performance, problems, and failings, a manager is automatically cast in the role of counselor. This role for the manager, in turn, results naturally in a problem-solving discussion" (p. 129). Thus, the leader avoids the customary role of judge, a role which may provoke the subordinate to become defensive over criticism of the subordinate's performance -- a definite drawback to a productive helping relationship. The leader does not want the soldier, for example, to resist attempts to be helped; for this reason, it is important to avoid alienating the soldier in the process of clarifying performance expectations. (This is a special point of concern in a military setting: the fact that performance appraisals are dependent solely on superiors' ratings creates a superior-subordinate relationship that is potentially an adversary one. This problem will be addressed later.)

Unfortunately, a program such as the one developed at GE is rare. Most supervisors carry out performance appraisal interviews only when pressured to do so by strong control procedures. In addition, there tends to be little follow-up improvement in behavior or constructive action taken by the subordinate stemming from suggestions offered by the boss in the performance appraisal interview. It is essential to

recognize that the way in which feedback is communicated is extremely important in determining its effects, or, as Levinson (1976) said, "Performance appraisal needs to be viewed not as a technique but as a process involving both people and data" (p. 31).

The leader as interviewer. The leadership role requires a leader to obtain information from and about subordinates. Interviewing is basically a goal-directed form of communication with a definite structure that distinguishes it from informal social communication. Interviews are conducted to get or to give information: facts, opinions, attitudes, perceptions, observations, and feelings. Interviewing procedures are aspects of the leader's job calling for specific skills. Interviewing skills facilitate problem solving and decision making, often bringing about changes in attitudes and behaviors. They allow one to question, respond to content, reflect feelings, make interpretations, suggest, and inform. In addition to being an integral part of the leader's job, the interview is also the heart of the counseling process, for the counselor listens, reflects, tutors, and informs (Tyler, 1961).

Earlier it was stated that the most typical counseling session in the Army is the reprimand session. If one acknowledges that performance counseling intends to incorporate a reprimand in the form of critical commentary about subordinates' performance, then it is easy to associate performance counseling with the correction interview. Correction interviews involve a progression of actions on the part of the supervisor/counselor that entail counseling ability. Redding (1971) described five phases, each calling for counseling skills: 1) the supervisor/counselor identifies the subordinate's undesirable behavior, helping the individual to develop insights about reasons for such behavior; 2) coaching gestures become appropriate once deficiencies are identified and performance objectives established; 3) should the poor performance be due to ignorance or result by accident, a more concerted correction response is required on the part of the supervisor; 4) but, if the subordinate's unsatisfactory behavior is determined to be intentional, a reprimand is in order; 5) finally, if performance does not improve after these counseling/coaching gestures have been made, the suitable response includes steps to terminate employment or to separate the soldier from service. One can see that interviewing skills enable the leader to hire, train, counsel, discipline, and even terminate subordinates' employment. As Huseman et al. (1976) stated, "the supervisor who lacks training in the interview process is unquestionably at a severe disadvantage in performing critical functions associated with his job" (p. 151).

To briefly summarize the leader's job as it suggests counseling responsibilities, we can say that the leader, as evaluator, recognizes and rewards effective and outstanding performance on the one hand, and critiques poor or substandard performance on the other hand. An im-

portant part of one's job as a leader also involves developing subordinates, for example by coaching a subordinate about how to better meet performance standards. An important aspect of this development responsibility involves helping subordinates to solve their personal problems; as a problem-solver, the leader is able to provide socio-emotional and action-oriented support for subordinates. Above all, the leader serves as an example or role model for others and, therefore, is a powerful helping figure. Figure 1-1 describes the counseling-related roles and duties of leaders.

Limitations on a Leader's Role as Counselor

There are several organizational characteristics that place limitations on a leader's ability to carry out the counseling role. For one thing, leaders are reinforced for being decisive, directive, and authoritarian. This role model is desirable and necessary for commanding people during wartime, but it does not readily encourage two-way communication. This authoritarian role model actually discourages the leader from becoming actively involved in a counseling relationship with the leader as counselor and the soldier as counselee. Differences created by rank are always noticeable, even though they remain advantageous for mission accomplishment.

Another impeding characteristic is a leader's propensity to advise, especially if the advice is based on several years of rich experience and wisdom. Ideally, however, a counselor pays more attention to listening than to dispensing advice or information. As a result, some confusion about roles may arise. This confusion may handicap a leader's effectiveness as a counselor. The confusion concerns the question of who sets the goals for changing behavior. In a true counseling situation, the person receiving the counseling strives to clarify the problem area with the assistance of the person offering the counseling in order to set specific goals. In the military, however, setting goals is the customary task of a leader. Because of this, it may seem normal for the leader to take an active role in deriving goals for, rather than with, subordinates.

Also, most counseling literature supports the notion that it is the counselee's responsibility to work toward improvement. Accepting responsibility is more likely when the counselee has sought help, but this is not always the case in the military where performance failings alert the leader to the need to counsel a soldier. In the Army, the counseling process may be hampered because the need for counseling usually is not identified by the soldier; consequently, the leader may have to deal with more hostility, defensiveness, and resistance to changing behavior than might be expected if the soldier had initiated the counseling session.

THE LEADER IS

- Role Model
- Interviewer
- Organizer
- Goal Setter
- Evaluator
- Problem Solver
- Communicator
- Developer
- Motivator
- Helper
- Teacher

THE LEADER DOES

Control and Evaluate

- Establish reporting systems
- Develop performance standards
- Measure results
- Take corrective action
- Manage differences
- Manage change

Train and Develop

- Select
- Orient
- Train
- Develop
- Motivate

Figure 1-1. Counseling-related Roles and Activities of Leaders

There is an additional fact that inhibits soldiers from voluntarily seeking help from their commanders. An important tenet of effective counseling is protection of information under a strict rule of confidentiality limiting exposure of information to just those people directly involved in a counseling session. But, by regulation, such protection of information is not guaranteed within the context of a counseling relationship in the Army. Undoubtedly, this regulation discourages people from revealing information to superiors that they perceive to be potentially harmful to their career if made public.

Another problem area hindering counseling effectiveness has to do with the Army's performance appraisal system, a system based on the superior's evaluation of the subordinate. As we have seen, there are three traditional functions of the performance appraisal: 1) to provide feedback about a person's work performance; 2) to coach the subordinate to adopt better work habits; and 3) to provide data for promotion decisions. Characteristically, then, the performance appraisal function has both evaluative and didactic purposes. Yet researchers (e.g., Levinson, 1976; Meyer, 1972; Truax & Mitchell, 1971) point out that the less a counselor makes evaluative statements, the greater is the counselee's improvement. In fact, when counselors make judgmental statements they actually have a destructive effect on the person receiving the counseling. As emphasized previously, performance appraisal systems typically put the superior in a double bind because they require adherence to a role that is primarily that of evaluator or judge, a difficult role to shed when the concurrent goal is performance counseling and the delivery of nonthreatening but constructive feedback.

Ideally, the objective is to provide performance coaching in a nonthreatening environment. Unfortunately, soldiers receive feedback about how well they are attaining performance levels only once a year or upon change of a superior or job; and the usual performance counseling session in the Army has menacing overtones because the minimum standard of performance has been inflated to a level embodying perfection.

Lastly, there is the question of a setting or atmosphere conducive to counseling, one characterized by privacy and a lack of distractions. Such an environment is not always possible to achieve in busy work settings, especially active field units, but the suggestion is strong to try to ensure some privacy. The important thing to keep in mind is the desirability of creating an atmosphere promoting trust and security. Conditions that enhance effective counseling include scheduled counseling sessions, a comfortable setting devoid of possibilities for interruptions, and a clear understanding of the purpose of the meeting.

It has been suggested that leaders engage in counseling activities as a matter of course and therefore can benefit by receiving training in counseling skills. The next section will examine the counseling process and general skills inherent in helping others.

Section Two

The Counseling Process

What is Counseling?

Counseling aims to establish a relationship based upon someone giving help to another person with an identified need for help. Helping is a process involving learning: the person doing the helping aims to encourage the one receiving the help to learn effective ways to cope with present feelings and environmental demands. Helping also provides techniques for solving problems, methods for planning, and skills to discriminate among choices. The point is not to change the basic personality of the individual, as in some forms of psychotherapy, but to enable one to utilize existing resources to cope better, to develop alternatives, and to take self-directed and constructive action in a self-sufficient manner. Ideally, the helping relationship is an interactive collaboration between leader and soldier in an atmosphere of trust and security. The reciprocal trust developed between the two allows the soldier to accept and appreciate the help that is offered, and increases the likelihood that he or she will be willing to listen and remain open to suggestions and new ideas. Helping will not take place if the leader is someone who makes the helping gesture out of a need to control, punish, or gain power over the soldier.

The counseling or helping process has several purposes: self-exploration, increased self-understanding, and concerted action to improve behavior (Carkhuff, 1973); alteration of maladaptive behavior, learning the process of decision-making, and the prevention of problems (Krumboltz, 1966); general exploration of resources and sources of stress or anxiety; clarification of goals; reinforcement of behavior (Tyler, 1961); and the helpee's acceptance of his or her own capabilities, motivations, and attitudes (American Psychological Association, 1953). The counseling process involves a three-phased cycle: 1) self-exploration; 2) feedback; and 3) further self-exploration. Some people see self-exploration as geared primarily toward problem solving. Others see it as directed toward changed behavior instigated by an increased awareness of personal abilities, assets, strengths, weaknesses, liabilities, desires, needs, aspirations, and values (Tyler, 1961). Still others regard the counseling process as aimed at achieving greater self-liking. Most people would agree, however, that the counseling or helping process seeks to establish a relationship that is warm, sincere, and dependable but not intimately close -- a relationship characterized by an accepting as opposed to evaluative attitude on the part of the counselor.

Brammer's (1973, p. 55) summary of eight stages of the helping process further describes the counseling sequence, one that incorporates problem-solving, life-planning, and self-awareness models:

- Stage 1: ENTRY -- establishing the helping relationship.
- Stage 2: CLARIFICATION -- the helpee states the problem or the reason for seeking help.
- Stage 3: STRUCTURING the RELATIONSHIP -- formulating a contract outlining the goals and expectations of the helping process.
- Stage 4: BUILDING -- a helping RELATIONSHIP.
- Stage 5: EXPLORING the PROBLEM -- formulating goals, planning strategies, gathering facts, expressing emotions, and learning skills.
- Stage 6: CONSOLIDATION -- exploring alternatives, working through feelings, practicing new skills.
- Stage 7: PLANNING -- developing an action plan, using conflict resolution strategies to reduce painful feelings.
- Stage 8: TERMINATION -- evaluating outcomes.

Figure 2-1 describes the nature of counseling.

What is an Effective Counselor?

There is some confusion about whether or not the effective counselor is someone possessing certain personality attributes or attitudes, or someone who can demonstrate interpersonal skills that are learned and refined with practice. Carl Rogers (1961), one of the most prominent contributors to the field of counseling, has asserted that the most important counselor characteristic is attitude; the counselor's attitude is more important than counseling skill or knowledge. According to Rogers, the recipient's perception of the helper's attitude (i.e., the counselor's sincere desire to help) is what makes the difference in the counselor/helper's effectiveness.

- Definition:
- The act of helping
 - A process of self-exploration involving the identification of sources of stress and anxiety, clarification, and reinforcement
 - A process of learning (a) how to cope and to problem solve, and (b) about needs, values, goals, and preferences
- Purposes:
- To explore problems and options
 - To develop insight
 - To increase self-understanding and self-acceptance
 - Goal directedness
- Goals:
- To identify problem areas, needs, and desires
 - To alter maladaptive behaviors
 - To learn how to make decisions
 - To resolve present problems
 - To prevent future problems
- Process:
- ENTRY -- establish a helping relationship
 - CLARIFICATION -- present the problem, state the need
 - STRUCTURING -- outline goals and expectations
 - ESTABLISHING THE RELATIONSHIP -- build a helping relationship
 - EXPLORING THE PROBLEM -- express feelings, gather facts, formulate goals, plan strategies, learn skills
 - CONSOLIDATION -- work through feelings, explore alternatives, practice new skills
 - PLANNING -- develop an action plan
 - TERMINATION -- evaluate outcomes against goals and expectations

Figure 2-1. The Nature of Counseling

Similarly, Goslin (1965) found a consistently low correlation between levels of knowledge and counseling ability. This suggests that perhaps the effective counselor is someone who has specific trait characteristics.

The counseling literature is rich with descriptions of the traits of effective counselors. The effective counselor is described as a person who is "warm, empathic, and assuring enough" (Lynch & Gardner, 1970, p. 1477); sensitive but objective and emotionally detached enough, accepting, self-aware (Rogers, 1942); flexible, gentle, sincere, open-minded, articulate, committed to individual human values (Van Kaam, 1966); able to solve one's own problems and manage one's own life (Combs, Gooding, Benton, Dickman, & Usher, 1969); attractive, friendly, comfortable to be with (Brammer, 1973) -- basically, someone who can identify with people, who is successful at coping, and who is open to self-disclosure. Gazda, et al. (1973) referred to two broad dimensions: 1) facilitation factors (e.g., concreteness -- the ability to be specific; genuineness -- honesty or realness; self-disclosure -- the ability to convey appropriately, "I've been there too"; and 2) action orientations (e.g., confrontation -- pointing out discrepancies; immediacy -- "telling it like it is"; risk-taking). Truax and Mitchell (1971) summarized the literature on counselor characteristics by listing the theoretically and clinically important skills as empathy, warmth, and genuineness. The thesis is that high levels of accurate empathy, nonpossessive warmth, and genuineness produce positive results whereas low levels lead to deterioration. Studies (Betz, 1963; Carkhuff, 1968, 1969, 1972, 1973; Carkhuff & Truax, 1965; Jourard, 1964; Mickelson & Stevic, 1971; Rogers, Gendin, Kisler & Truax, 1967; Shapiro & Voog, 1969; Truax & Carkhuff, 1967; Truax & Lister, 1970; Truax & Mitchell, 1971; Truax & Wargo, 1969), show that counselors who are empathic, nonpossessively warm in attitude, and genuine are effective regardless of training or theoretical orientation with a wide variety of clients, in a variety of contexts, and in both individual and group therapy situations.

What does it mean to be genuine, nonpossessively warm, and accurately empathic? Genuineness fosters an honest and nondefensive relationship that promotes the development of trust and openness. It is a dimension that allows the counselor to serve as a role model of someone who is nonphony, nondefensive, and authentic. A closely related dimension that helps the counselor create a nonthreatening, safe, and secure atmosphere is nonpossessive warmth. A counselor who displays nonpossessive warmth demonstrates unconditional positive regard for the individual receiving counseling, which is to say that he or she communicates a deep interest in and concern for the soldier's welfare. The counselor conveys to the person that he/she is important, valued, and cared about regardless of how good/appropriate or bad/inappropriate is the person's behavior. Perhaps the most important dimension, according to research findings, is accurate empathy, which involves

the ability to perceive and communicate accurately and with sensitivity another's feelings and experiences, as well as the meaning and significance of these feelings and experiences. Being empathic is akin to the adage of stepping into another's shoes in order to understand life from that person's perspective. The objective is to sense the meaning of another's anger, fear, and joy. The counselor can do this by noticing subtle nonverbal (facial, postural, gestural) clues and moment-to-moment changes in the soldier, such as blushing, stammering, sudden chattiness, breathing pattern alterations, postural tensing, and the expression of socially inappropriate feelings. The importance of accurate empathy is that it reflects feelings and behaviors back to the helpee like a mirror to clarify what the helpee is suggesting by voice, postural, and content clues. Accurate empathy, then, translates into diagnostic accuracy: the counselor is able to interpret the soldier's feelings correctly and, in this way, to expose underlying feelings. As Truax and Mitchell (1971) have concluded, "To both accurately predict and effectively communicate what the client or patient is currently experiencing and feeling, of 'what the client might well say, were he more open and less defensive,' is the quality of accurate empathic understanding" (p. 318). Figure 2-2 describes the dimensions of effective helping.

The above discussion suggests strongly that the effective counselor is someone who reaches out to comfort people. Such an orientation does not typify the stereotypical profile of the military leader as someone who is tough-minded, obedient, controlled, aggressive -- the very embodiment of hard-hitting masculinity, that is "rigid, logical, inflexible, unemotional, disciplined and devoid of intuition" (Dixon, 1976, p. 307). One does not readily expect the average Army commander to find it easy to listen empathically, express warmth, or convey a sense of sincere interest in establishing a close interpersonal relationship with a subordinate or soldier. Yet the fact is that this can be an effective way to obtain a change in another's undesirable behavior. A soldier may change behavior out of fear upon receiving a hostile "chewing out," but such change most probably will last only as long as the fear of additional verbal attacks for poor performance remains strong. In other words, the change will be transitory and superficial. The key issue here is the purpose of the counseling session. If it is to allow the leader an opportunity to ventilate anger, then long-term behavioral change on the part of the soldier is an unrealistic expectation. If it is to help the soldier to truly improve behavior, then the leader's attitudes and actions become crucial. The leader who is looking for an outlet for his anger should stay out of a counseling session. The leader who wants to take on the counseling role should use each opportunity to examine his or her counseling skills.

GENUINENESS	- being real	
	- not being defensive	
	- matching behaviors to statements	= nondefensiveness
	- you are as you appear	= trust = honesty = openness
NONPOSSESSIVE WARMTH	- displaying unconditional positive regard	
	- communicating interest and concern	= increased self-respect
	- accepting another as is	= increased self-expression
		= increased self-acceptance
ACCURATE EMPATHY	- perceiving and communicating accurately and with sensitivity another's feelings and experiences	= mirroring the helpee's feelings
	- thinking with rather than for or about another	= diagnostic accuracy
		= increased self-understanding

Figure 2-2. Dimensions of Effective Helping

Communication Skill

Communication skill is a thread throughout the helping process. It underlies interviewing, listening, problem identification, problem solving, and all systems of counseling. Communication is conveyed through words, facial expressions, gestures, body movements, and voice qualities (e.g., tone, rate of speech, and pitch). Carkhuff (1973) defined helping as communication: "Helping is, in truth, a process of teaching people who do not communicate fully to communicate fully -- with themselves and others" (p. 132). Brammer (1973) has stated that interpersonal misunderstandings arise because people cannot communicate with one another. No counselor or leader can be effective without being able to communicate well. When we lack the facts, we are inclined to make assumptions, and when we make erroneous assumptions, communication problems tend to arise.

Communication skills enable leaders to identify and deal with communication problems in the organization. The most common communication problem is a lack of upward communication flow. This is because the upward flow of information is impeded by the superior's reluctance to hear certain kinds of information, especially negative information. What the boss wants to know is not necessarily what the soldier wants to convey (Clement, 1973). Therefore, upward communication tends to be characterized by a lack of spontaneous and free expression, and downward communication by an unwillingness on the part of the boss to listen. The problem is compounded by the fact that those in leadership positions "are less in the habit of listening to their subordinates than in telling them. The subordinates also fall into this role pattern and expect to listen to their bosses rather than be listened to" (Katz & Kahn, 1966, pp. 245-246). The more constricted the vertical communication between supervisors and their subordinates, the more likely becomes lateral or horizontal communication. As Katz and Kahn explained:

Where a foreman finds little reception from his superior, he will readily turn to fellow foremen to talk about his problems. Horizontal exchange can be an escape valve for frustration in communicating upward and downward; and sometimes it can operate to accomplish some of the essential business of the organization. (p. 247)

This suggests that someone who will listen will be sought out in the organization even if it means bypassing the immediate superior or the chain of command. The fact that people will look for a good listener highlights the need for leadership training in listening skills.

"Listening is a major part of the communication process" (Zelko, 1969, p. 458). The average manager spends a considerable amount of

time on the job listening -- to superiors, employees, peers, customers, suppliers, stockholders, community leaders, professional and educational groups, labor union members and officers, government officials, communications media representatives -- in face-to-face meetings, social conversations, group discussions, and conferences. The good listener acquires considerable information; since decision making is improved by having more pertinent information at one's disposal, listening skills can definitely help one become a better leader. Listening ability can help soldiers adjust, cooperate, and produce by affording them a clearer understanding of their situation so that they have a better chance to take responsibility for themselves. An individual who has been listened to with interest not only becomes more open but also less defensive.

Listening ability can be improved by developing active listening skills. Active listening is listening with understanding in order to appreciate both the meaning and feeling behind what the speaker is saying. The listener conveys direct interest in the speaker and respect for his or her opinions. Active listening is contagious in that it tends to encourage the speaker to listen actively as well. Basically, it is a process of thinking with people instead of for or about them.

Active listening involves three components: attention, reception, and perception. As Huseman et al. (1976) emphasized, "the manager who attends carefully to what his subordinates say, who is capable of receiving their communication adequately, and who perceives their messages as the subordinates intended them to be perceived, can be called an effective listener" (p. 45). But active listening involves more than careful attention to the speaker.

Burke (1973) talked about paraphrasing or summarizing what the speaker has said, paying attention to nonverbal behavior, and listening for the main thought or idea of the message as the elements of active listening. Huseman et al. (1976) elaborated on these elements, adding that the active listener also is able to anticipate what the speaker will say next and can grasp the total meaning of the message. The active listener communicates interest in the speaker by not sitting too far away, by leaning forward alertly, by concentrating to block out distractions, by sifting out facts from opinions, and by listening more for understanding than for comprehension. One way to obtain a comprehensive picture of the speaker's strengths and weaknesses, interests and aptitudes, and past experiences and expectations is to attend to what Trager (1958) termed "paralanguage": the way in which something is said rather than what is said. This means paying attention to "vocal qualities" (pitch, rate, and volume), "vocal characterizers" (e.g., laughing, mumbling, clearing of the throat), "vocal qualifiers" (pitch and volume variations), and "vocal aggregates" (e.g., silent pauses, hesitations, frequent sighing).

Active listening also requires careful observation of nonverbal communication, which Gazda et al. (1973) contended speaks louder than verbal communication, communicating the real message, and perhaps even negating the message one intended to send. Focusing on nonverbal communication involves noticing facial expressions, body posture, the placement of hands and feet, hand movements, eye movements and degree of eye contact, attire (i.e., clothing, make-up, appropriateness of dress), and such physiological reactions as flushing, perspiring, rate of breathing, and tightening and relaxing of muscles. More specifically, it means paying attention to whether or not the speaker twists or wrings the hands, blushes at the mention of certain topics, makes sudden gross movements toward or away from the listener, starts to cry, taps on the chin or pulls at the knees, puts objects in the mouth, clenches the teeth, covers the mouth, clutches at the throat, taps a foot, plays with hair strands, bites or purses the lips, drums the fingers on the chair or table, folds the arms tightly, swings a leg, tugs at pieces of clothing, looks frequently at a watch or clock, rubs the skin, smiles too much, or giggles continuously.

Many communication problems arise because people send out confused messages with unclear intent. The ability to discriminate the meaning of messages can help the active listener point out to the speaker (e.g., soldier) just how unrecognized needs and feelings can distort messages and how discrepancies between verbal and nonverbal messages can compound problems. Perceiving accurately is a discriminating ability. A leader can perceive accurately by noticing a soldier's defense mechanisms: rationalizing behavior, compensation for inadequacies, projection of motives, expression of exaggerated feelings. By recognizing the need to help the soldier match intent with words and behaviors, the leader can develop the soldier's insights. The leader can also assist by attending positively to constructive behaviors and conditionally to destructive or negative behaviors, thus reinforcing those behaviors that are desirable.

It should be obvious that there is considerable overlap between counseling skills and communication skills. In trying to extract discrete skills, it is difficult to isolate them as communication skills, human relations skills, interpersonal skills, or helping skills. Examining specific skills inherent in the helping or counseling process clarifies this overlap. The next section addresses in behavioral terms the kinds of processes, dimensions, and broad skill areas discussed mostly descriptively up to this point.

Section Three

Counseling Skills

Counseling Dimensions

Genuineness, warmth, and empathic understanding are the three dimensions along which effective counselors distinguish themselves from ineffective counselors. Although these dimensions appear to be personality orientations or attitudes, they can be treated as skill areas. As Truax and Mitchell (1971) asserted:

If we consider warmth and empathy, for example, as responses that can be modified through feedback and as responses that are teachable, then, for training purposes, it is most useful to conceptualize them as skills as well as personality characteristics. (p. 313)

Describing counselor competencies as traits suggests that we should place our emphasis on selecting people who reflect the requisite characteristics. Of course, this cannot happen in the military. In the Army we do not have the luxury of placing only those people with identified counseling ability in leadership positions. To the contrary, we must concentrate on developing and refining the counseling ability that leaders already have. For this reason, it is apropos to identify pertinent counseling skills and then focus on training programs that are designed to impart these skills.

Menne (1975) focused precisely on counselor preparation as competency-based. She conducted a job analysis of the counselor role, collecting statements from 75 experienced counselors from a variety of work settings regarding the competencies they believed necessary for effective face-to-face counseling. From 132 competencies later rated by 376 experienced counselors, factor analysis produced 12 dimensions:

- 1) Personal characteristics -- respect for the autonomy of individuals; respect for the worth and dignity of man; maturity; intuitiveness; flexibility.
- 2) Societal awareness -- basic kinds of knowledge about the community, such as locally available referral resources.

- 3) Counseling comprehension -- the abilities to assess, diagnose or evaluate, to utilize timing, and to maintain the appropriate emotional distance and objectivity.
- 4) Self-awareness -- insight into one's own capabilities, weaknesses, values, attitudes, biases, and limitations.
- 5) Behavior science knowledge -- knowledge of theories, research findings, testing procedures, ethical standards.
- 6) Listening and communicating skills -- active listening, verbal and nonverbal communication.
- 7) Tutoring techniques -- teaching skills applied to individuals and small groups.
- 8) Vocational guidance -- knowledge of the environment of work, sources of occupational and vocational information.
- 9) Counselor training -- how to teach, train, supervise, and consult.
- 10) Professional credentials -- degrees, diplomas, licensing, certification.
- 11) Testing skills.
- 12) Professional ethics -- standards of appropriate and desirable conduct.

The above competencies pertain to a conglomerate of knowledges, skills, awarenesses, standards, and procedures. For the purpose of establishing training programs, we are interested in specific skills. Nevertheless, Menne's study was

. . . envisioned as an initial step toward the development of competency-based procedures for use in selection, training, and evaluation of

counselors or therapists. The 12 factors or dimensions of counselor competency, as developed in this research, are groupings of elements that are not new to the profession. However, no effort has previously been made to pull them all together and to explore their configuration in a systematic way. (Menne, 1975, p. 552)

The point of identifying competencies is to be able to isolate skills so that eventually people will be trained only in the skills they need. Brammer (1973) has developed a classification of skills pertaining to personal and performance counseling:

A. Skills Leading to Understanding

1. Listening Skills

- 1.1 Attending**
- 1.2 Paraphrasing**
- 1.3 Clarifying**
- 1.4 Perception-checking**

2. Leading Skills

- 2.1 Indirect leading**
- 2.2 Direct leading**
- 2.3 Focusing**
- 2.4 Questioning**

3. Reflecting Skills

- 3.1 Feeling**
- 3.2 Content**
- 3.3 Experience**

- 4. Summarizing Skills
 - 4.1 Feeling
 - 4.2 Content
 - 4.3 Process
- 5. Confronting Skills
 - 5.1 Describing feelings
 - 5.2 Expressing feelings
 - 5.3 Feeding back
 - 5.4 Meditating
 - 5.5 Repeating
 - 5.6 Associating
- 6. Interpreting Skills
 - 6.1 Explaining
 - 6.2 Questioning
 - 6.3 Fantasizing
- 7. Informing Skill
 - 7.1 Giving information
 - 7.2 Giving advice
 - 7.3 Suggesting
- B. Skills for Comfort and Crisis Utilization
 - 1. Supporting Skill
 - 1.1 Contracting
 - 1.2 Reassuring
 - 1.3 Relaxing

- 2. Crisis Intervening Skill
 - 2.1 Building hope
 - 2.2 Consoling
 - 2.3 Controlling
- 3. Centering Skill
 - 3.1 Identifying strengths
 - 3.2 Reviewing growth experiences
 - 3.3 Recalling peak experiences
- 4. Referring
- C. Skills for Positive Action
 - 1. Problem Solving and Decision Making Skills
 - 1.1 Identifying problems
 - 1.2 Changing problems into goals
 - 1.3 Analyzing problems
 - 1.4 Exploring a course of action
 - 1.5 Planning a course of action
 - 1.6 Generalizing to new problems
 - 2. Behavior Modifying Skill
 - 2.1 Modeling
 - 2.2 Rewarding
 - 2.3 Extinguishing
 - 2.4 Desensitizing

While the skills listed above may be more applicable to a program geared toward professional counselors, they give us some insight into the complexity of the counseling skill area. Carkhuff (1973), a pioneer in identifying and clarifying counselor competencies as behavior-

al skills, has described counseling ability in terms of three skill groupings: attending skills, responding skills, and initiating skills. We can examine these skills in relation to Brammer's classification so as to identify counseling skills that are relevant to Army leaders. A revised classification would resemble the following:

A. Attending Skills (skills leading to understanding)

1. Listening Skills
2. Leading Skills
3. Reflecting Skills

B. Responding Skills

1. Summarizing Skill
2. Confronting Skill
3. Interpreting Skill
4. Informing Skill

C. Initiating Skills (skills for positive action)

1. Problem-Solving and Decision-Making Skills

Attending Skills

Attending behavior is important in assisting the soldier to talk, to express him- or herself fully, and to increase insight. Ivey (1971) called attending behavior the basic skill underlying counseling ability. Attending skill denotes the ability of the counselor to maintain a relaxed body posture, to keep up eye contact, and to reflect upon what the helpee has said. On a simple level, attending behavior is listening thoughtfully to another person. The leader who displays attending skill would not stare at the soldier but would maintain a natural yet observant focus to note nonverbal behavior. As far as body posture is concerned, the leader would convey a sense of relaxation by sitting in a comfortable and natural position, thereby putting the soldier at ease. The leader can reflect upon what the soldier has said by responding to the soldier's statements in a way that communicates to the soldier a desire to understand what the soldier is communicating. As Ivey (1971) stressed:

By directing one's comments and questions to the topics provided by the client, one not only helps him develop an area of discussion, but reinforces the client's free expression, resulting in more spontaneity and animation in the client's talking. (p. 149)

Carkhuff (1973) described three aspects of attending behavior: 1) attending physically, 2) attending psychologically, 3) listening. Attending physically means facing the soldier fully: when sitting, inclining the body forward or toward the soldier; moving closer to the soldier when standing. Leaning toward the person who is being addressed indicates that the counselor or leader regards the helpee or soldier positively (Mehrabian, 1968). Attending psychologically is a more abstract concept. It means that the leader communicates his or her undivided attention by being consistently and intensely attentive, by maintaining eye contact, and by noticing the soldier's appearance and behavior. A key ingredient of attending behavior is listening, specifically focusing on the soldier's self-expressions. Focusing involves repeating the soldier's statements verbatim in one's mind, reflecting on content, and looking for common themes. Focused or active listening is aided by resisting the intrusion of outside distractions such as noise factors. It is important that the leader be nonjudgmental and not draw any conclusions early so as to enable the soldier to feel comfortable enough to talk openly. The main result of attentive listening is that the leader is more likely to hear and understand what the soldier is trying to express in behavior and speech.

Attending skill also involves skills related to interviewing and the elicitation of information (whether of a personal nature or dealing with job performance). A skill related to interviewing and leading the soldier to talk is referred to by Phillips, Lockhart, and Moreland (1969a, 1969b) as "open invitations to talk" or "minimal encourages." The point is to ask open-ended questions in such a way that the soldier is encouraged to talk, to go beyond "Yes" and "No" responses. The value of such a questioning approach is that it directs attention to the soldier's needs and feelings, thus permitting the soldier to clarify issues and problems. Open-ended questions allow the leader to probe -- to discern how the soldier sees the situation and to initiate discussion. Minimal encourages keep the soldier talking. Examples of minimal encourages are saying "hm - hmmm," repeating a couple of words just spoken by the soldier, asking "Then?" or "And?" or "So?," nodding the head in agreement with a statement, stating "Tell me more," "How do you feel about that?" and "What does that mean to you?" Gestures such as these on the part of the leader encourage the soldier to elaborate, explain, and explore.

Responding Skills

Responding skills are follow-up skills to attending skills and convey a responsiveness to the helpee's self-expression. They allow a leader to pay close attention to a soldier's posture and mannerisms for clues that the person is sad, happy, angry, or tense. For example, if the soldier's posture is slouched or if she/he is speaking listlessly, the individual may be depressed. An erect body and rapid speech could be an indication that the soldier is tense. It is important to note incongruities between what the soldier is saying and doing. Focusing upon nonverbal clues is the key here. The leader can pay attention to the soldier's delivery, tone of voice, facial expressions and words to determine his/her feelings. In addition, the leader can be responsive by encouraging the soldier to be specific and by reflecting back to the soldier perceptions of the soldier's feelings, for instance saying, "you feel" and then, upon obtaining confirmation from the soldier that the perception is correct, stating "You feel because" Responding skills enable the process of self-exploration to begin. Carkhuff (1973) summed up the importance of responding skills when he asserted: "If we do not respond to (the helpee) in his fullness, the implications are clear: If we cannot find him, we lose him. If we lose him, he cannot find himself" (p. 69).

Another related skill is interpretation skill. It involves attending, self-expression, summarizing skills, reflection of feeling statements, and paraphrasing skills. Basically, the leader takes the gist of the soldier's statements and summarizes it. "When an interviewer makes an interpretation, he is presenting the client with a new frame of reference through which the client can view his problem and, hopefully, better understand and deal with it" (Ivey, 1971, p. 69). An interpretation is meaningful if the soldier finds it helpful for coping better with the problem. The leader continually interprets, revising interpretations as appropriate. The cumulative result of interpreting is an analysis of the soldier's difficulties and a preliminary diagnosis of their causes. The purpose of interpreting, then, is to develop a total picture of the problem situation so that the soldier can take intelligent action; in the process, the leader develops a deeper and more accurate understanding and appreciation of the soldier. Interpreting behavior communicates to the soldier that the leader is listening carefully.

Another relevant skill cluster is summarizing skill. When the leader summarizes the soldier's feelings, she/he stimulates further discussion, instigating the clarification of feelings. The leader notes consistencies and inconsistencies in the soldier's emotional reactions throughout the session. The leader is constantly restating the feelings and perceptions that the soldier is communicating.

Another facet of summarizing skill involves summarizing content to pull together information and facts; the leader recapitulates, condenses, and then clarifies the main thoughts of the soldier's statements to impose structure at the beginning of the session, when the soldier tends to ramble on, when a topic has been exhausted, when planning steps are appropriate, and at the end of the session. Summarization is similar to reflection of feeling but covers a longer time period and involves a broader range of feelings. Its main purpose is to crystallize the discussion, stimulate deeper and more meaningful discussion, and allow the leader to check out with the soldier perceptions of the situation. Effective summarization evokes from the soldier a response of "That's right, I never looked at it that way before." It is dependent, however, on the soldier's reception and use of the summarization. Overwhelming the soldier with too much information or making too simple a summarization will not help the soldier explore the problem deeply.

Perhaps the above discussion seems familiar in that it is obvious that these skills are basically listening skills. A focus upon the emotional aspects of the soldier's comments -- a responsiveness to feeling as opposed to content -- implies a need to listen to how the soldier says as well as to what the soldier says. This means listening for feeling and noticing changes in breathing, rate of speech, and the use of emotion-laden words. Active or focused listening is conveyed through attending and responding behaviors that both indicate an understanding of the soldier's predicament and clarify feelings and content.

Initiating Skills

Initiating skills stimulate problem solving and goal setting by helping the soldier concentrate on the present in relation to desired objectives. The leader can emphasize the present by pointing out deficit behaviors, hoping to get the soldier to accept such behaviors. For example, the leader can say "You feel . . . because you . . .," personalizing the problem for the soldier, thus affording him/her insight into how the present problematic situation arose. Confronting the soldier with inconsistencies, i.e., stating "On the one hand you say . . . and on the other you do . . .," is one way to point out the soldier's deficits and assets. The leader wants the soldier to be motivated enough to work through self-destructive behaviors to achieve a deeper sense of self-understanding and tangible changes or gains in behavior. Implementing a course of action involves defining and describing the problem area(s), clarifying directions and goals, and analyzing critical dimensions of these directions and goals.

The process of solving problems is straightforward. It is mainly a process of planning with rather than for another. Brammer (1973) has listed several key steps of this process (see pp. 141-142):

- 1) The leader uses listening and reflecting skills to discover the crux of the soldier's problem and to make a diagnosis.
- 2) The leader assists the soldier to state the problem clearly toward the end of specifying achievable goals expressed as observable behaviors.
- 3) The leader and soldier mutually prioritize problem areas and discuss acceptable levels of success.
- 4) Realistic goals are stipulated and action alternatives are stated.
- 5) The consequences of each action alternative are discussed thoroughly.
- 6) The soldier's progress toward the goals is continuously monitored.
- 7) The soldier is assisted in developing coping and problem-solving skills.
- 8) Leader and soldier assess whether or not the primary goal and subgoals have been reached and if the soldier has learned the problem-solving process.
- 9) The learning experience is evaluated for its appropriateness and success.

It is important to identify specific problems and to translate them into precise goals. This implies listening to the soldier's feelings to gain information about how things should be so that goals desired by and tailored to the soldier can be formulated, goals that are observable and accessible. Goals such as increased self-understanding are not specific enough. Improving the management of one's time, developing social skills, learning to budget, becoming more assertive with one's coworkers, and diminishing fears and phobias represent more attainable goals. Specific behaviors should be the object of change. Figure 3-1 shows the overlap between interpersonal communication skills and counseling or helping skills.

One way to stimulate improvement is to emphasize problem-solving skills that can be applied to everyday situations. The leader as counselor can identify conditions that maintain self-destructive behaviors, evaluate various consequences of the soldier's actions in

INTERPERSONAL
COMMUNICATION
SKILLS

Interviewing

eliciting information
clarifying facts
sifting out opinions

Active Listening
(listening with
respect, under-
standing, and
sensitivity)

attention
reception
perception

- paraphrasing
and summarizing
what the speaker
has said
- attending to
verbal state-
ments and non-
verbal behaviors
- listening to the
main thought or idea
of the message
- attending to construc-
tive behaviors while
ignoring destructive
behaviors

HELPING
SKILLS

Genuineness
Warmth
Empathy

Attending
Skills

- listening thoughtfully
without conveying judg-
ment, active listening,
noting nonverbal clues
- attending psychologically,
maintaining a relaxed body
posture and eye contact
- attending psychologically
by communicating full and
undivided attention
- encouraging the helpee
to talk, to explore
thoughts and feelings
by asking open-ended
questions

Responding
Skills

- self-expression skills--empath-
ically responding to helpee's
behaviors and feelings

Figure 3-1. Communication and Helping Skills

- attending skills--focusing on nonverbal clues (delivery, tone of voice, facial expressions)
 - clarifying and focusing skills--encouraging and rewarding, specificity in the helpee's expression
 - interpretation skill--paraphrasing, summarizing, reflecting back the helpee's feelings
- Initiating Skills
- listening and reflecting skills to diagnose the problem(s)
 - interviewing skills to identify the problem, its conditions, and self-destructive and undesirable behaviors
 - clarifying skills to prioritize the problems and to determine desirable levels of success
 - goal-setting and contracting skills to determine realistic and precise goals and alternatives
 - evaluation skills to discuss the consequences of alternatives, to assess the evaluation of coping skills, to measure progress toward goals
 - feedback and informing skills to guide helpee progress toward goal achievement

Figure 3-1. Communication and Helping Skills

- confrontation skills to probe feelings of hostility, defensiveness, empathy, indifference
- problem solving and decision making skills to plan a course of action
- behavior modifying and reinforcement skills to model and reward desirable behaviors and to extinguish undesirable behaviors

Figure 3-1. Communication and Helping Skills

relation to goals, and provide continual feedback. It is important that the focus remain on the soldier's present behavior and the complex environment in which it takes place.

Problem Solving and Performance Counseling Skills

The previous section has focused upon interpersonal skills that facilitate problem identification, exploration, and resolution as applied to counseling situations. Although the discussion has concentrated on these skills as they particularly apply to the personal counseling situation, they are also integral to performance counseling, a major issue for Army leaders. Performance counseling, as it incorporates the skills referred to above, suggests a "management-by-objectives" (MBO) approach, a philosophy of management that encourages participative goal setting and a results-oriented technique for establishing goals and performance objectives. The purpose of MBO is to improve performance, at the same time teaching the subordinate how to set up specific plans and how to become committed to following through with these plans. The essence of the approach is problem solving. Although the intent is to improve performance, the process also takes into account the subordinate's personal development; a secondary objective of MBO is to increase one's self-worth through the self-satisfaction that is derived from successfully accomplishing tasks and achieving performance objectives. Performance counseling is concerned with the present and the future as opposed to the past. Another important emphasis is upon behavior: the assumption is that the person who understands his or her behavior is able to modify it because understanding allows one to take responsibility for one's behavior (Glasser & Zunin, 1973).

The first step in performance counseling is to locate the problem area. What are the general or major problems as the soldier perceives them? What is the leader's perception? It is necessary to establish some congruency here because the planning process will be hampered if there is no agreement about performance deficiencies. Locating the problem area requires breaking the problem down and isolating the context of the problem. Does it concern the work situation? Does it pertain to work relationships? Is it related to discrepancies between personal/professional needs and organizational requirements? Interviewing skills and active listening skills help the leader identify the problem area. Particularly facilitative of discussion are probing questions asked in a nonthreatening and nonjudgmental manner. The leader should avoid advising, interpreting too soon, humoring the soldier, preaching, or lecturing. Although it is helpful to allow the soldier to express feelings about actual performance levels and others' expectations, the discussion and subsequent planning will be most productive if the session is focused upon specific behaviors and standards. Therefore, the leader can guide the discussion by asking

the soldier to list concrete incidents, specific examples, and only relevant illustrations of the problem. This means neither accepting broad statements and excuses nor allowing the soldier to blame others for performance inadequacies. Nevertheless, the leader can point out exaggerated feelings on the part of the soldier and highlight defensiveness, hostility, and vague or confusing statements in attempting to define the problem area. The emphasis should not be on deficiencies as much as on avoiding problems in the future; for this reason, the focus is best placed on positive planning for improved performance in obvious and acknowledged areas, and not on concentrating in a negative way on deficiencies.

Paraphrasing and summarizing skills enable the leader to make an assessment of performance problem areas and to verify them with the soldier. Writing the problems down on paper or on a blackboard helps to organize and clarify the issues; in this way, it becomes possible to break complex problems down into more manageable problems, to combine similar ideas, and then to define the problem area(s). This is also a way to post or record the problem so that it is understandable. The purpose of performance counseling is not to cross-examine the soldier about failings but to explore areas for improvement.

The next step after identifying the problem area(s) is to ascertain areas where improvement is both called for and feasible. If the problem is a skill deficiency, both the leader and soldier can explore how to develop the skill by examining the requirements of the job in relation to the soldier's assessed abilities. Resources for procuring additional training and education can be addressed and scheduling requirements determined. In some cases, the leader may be able to teach the soldier new skills. Task restructuring and job enlargement or enrichment may also be addressed. Once the needs are assessed, the leader and soldier can list alternatives, judging their advantages and disadvantages. It is first important to list all possible alternatives without evaluating them; once this is accomplished, the two can weigh the options and ferret out the most likely and effective alternatives so that choices can be made. Specific objectives can be set, and the purpose of proposed changes can be clarified.

It is helpful at this point to treat performance objectives individually, one at a time, and to write them down. Explicitly detailing performance objectives will ensure that they are understood and measurable. Specifically, what is called for is to list the behavioral requirements or actions required, to stipulate the conditions under which performance will be demonstrated and the resources that are required, and to identify the standards of achievement articulating acceptable levels of performance. Once this is accomplished, deadlines can be set. It is helpful to ask the soldier to restate the performance expectations to see if they are understood and acceptable. It is extremely important to gain the soldier's commitment to work

toward the objectives. This step can be referred to as "contracting." Detailed plans outlined in terms of specific behavioral requirements enhance the contracting.

Seeing that the soldier follows through with plans requires clarification, evaluation, reinforcement and confrontation skills. The soldier is both informed and put at ease when told how and when evaluations will be carried out to check progress. It is important for the soldier to know when performance objectives are being met and what constitutes successful demonstration of a skill. It is also the leader's responsibility to reinforce good performance -- to state specifically what was done well -- always in relation to expected behaviors and performance standards. Delivering feedback is crucial. Making on-the-spot corrections without embarrassing the soldier or calling attention to poor performance helps to reinforce desired behavior, but this is somewhat difficult to accomplish because of the need to relate undesirable behavior to performance objectives. Glasser and Zunin (1973) have emphasized the importance of refusing to accept a subordinate's excuses for not meeting performance objectives. It is fruitless, they contend, to explore why plans are not carried out; instead, the key is to focus on getting the individual's commitment to action. If plans or objectives have to be revised, they can be. In all cases, however, the aim is to have the individual actively strive to meet objectives, thus fostering a sense of accomplishment. Positive reinforcement principles are pertinent: performance feedback, individual recognition (smiling, praising, listening), and public acknowledgement of success (praising the soldier in front of others) are means to foster this sense of accomplishment.

It is crucial to establish a relationship with the soldier that involves him or her in the problem-solving process so that the individual discovers how much control he/she can exercise over future outcomes by controlling his/her own behavior. The specific skills called for include problem identification ability, goal setting skills, active listening skills, interpretation and diagnostic competencies, and the ability to pass on the information and feedback accurately and with interest and concern. The process is dependent upon relevant information, which is used to clarify values, re-examine goals, explore choices, and assess risks and consequences. By way of summary, then, the problem-solving process finds the leader assessing a soldier's problem(s) in light of those behaviors maintaining the problem(s). Mutual agreement on precise goals for new behaviors is reached, and the application of change strategies discussed. Throughout, there is a continual redefinition of the problem as insight is gained, a joint focus upon possible alternative solutions and exploration of the data, and continual reality testing of the alternatives. Finally, the outcomes are evaluated in relation to defined goals, and feedback is provided. Getting the soldier's commitment is essential. Another important step involves providing an opportunity to practice

or rehearse behaviors designed to produce change.

As one can see, many of the skills discussed in reference to personal counseling are also applicable to performance counseling. There is no clear-cut distinction between personal counseling skills and performance counseling skills, as can be seen from Figure 3-2. The situation or context of counseling (i.e., personal or performance counseling) does not change the skills called upon to counsel effectively; rather, certain skills will be emphasized over others, depending upon the purpose of the counseling session. Figure 3-3 is a graphic representation of how the skills are related to different purposes.

An Analysis by Organizational Level

Lower Levels. The skills required for both personal and performance counseling are basically the same, except for a difference in emphasis. Personal counseling skills rely heavily upon listening skills and are oriented to problem identification. For this reason, these skills are needed most for those leaders who have a great amount of interaction with their subordinates, i.e., E4s and E5s, and lieutenants and captains. Leaders at these levels can be highly effective in getting the individual or soldier to express feelings so as to explore the problem enough to clarify it, keeping in mind the need to identify those with serious problems for referral to qualified and expert practitioners. Attending and responding skills should thus be the focus of the curriculum for officer and NCO basic and advanced courses. But performance counseling skills are also important at these levels because of the pressure to accomplish tasks, work goals, and mission objectives. For this reason, an emphasis on the action-oriented skills related to problem solving and goal setting are also pertinent at the lower levels and should be a part of the schoolhouse curriculum.

Middle Levels. At the middle levels, the E6, E7, senior captain, major, and junior lieutenant colonel levels, the focus changes because the leadership job changes. What personal counseling is done will probably relate to a need to reinforce subordinates' identification with the Army; therefore, leaders may find that they have to counsel those individuals who are expressing or manifesting difficulty in conforming to the organization's behavioral norms regarding both on- and off-the-job conduct. At this level it is crucial to keep an eye open to signs of stress or distress; probing soldiers about these signals will promote a leader's understanding of the relationship between job demands and individual motivations and needs. This point in the career sequence is also a career crossroad for many, a time when they may be contemplating retirement and a new career, or a time when they

WHAT TO DO WITH THE HELPEE/SUBORDINATE/SOLDIER	SKILLS NEEDED
1. Locate the problem area	- Interviewing and Listening Skills
2. Clarify the problem area	- Interpreting Skill
3. Assess the extent of the problem	- Diagnostic skill (para-phrasing and summarizing skills)
4. Define the problem in precise behavioral terms	- Clarification Skill
5. List desired objectives and options	- Goal Setting Skill
6. Assess all alternatives and weigh options	- Evaluation Skill
7. Set specific objectives	- Goal Setting Skill
8. Prioritize these objectives	- Decision making Skill
9. Establish performance standards	- Action planning Skill
10. Establish deadlines	- Planning Skill, Contracting
11. Reinforce desirable behavior according to a clear-cut role model	- Modeling and Reinforcement Skills
12. Reassess progress vis-a-vis objectives	- Evaluation and Confrontation Skill
13. Deliver feedback	- Communication Skill

Figure 3-2. Performance Counseling Skills

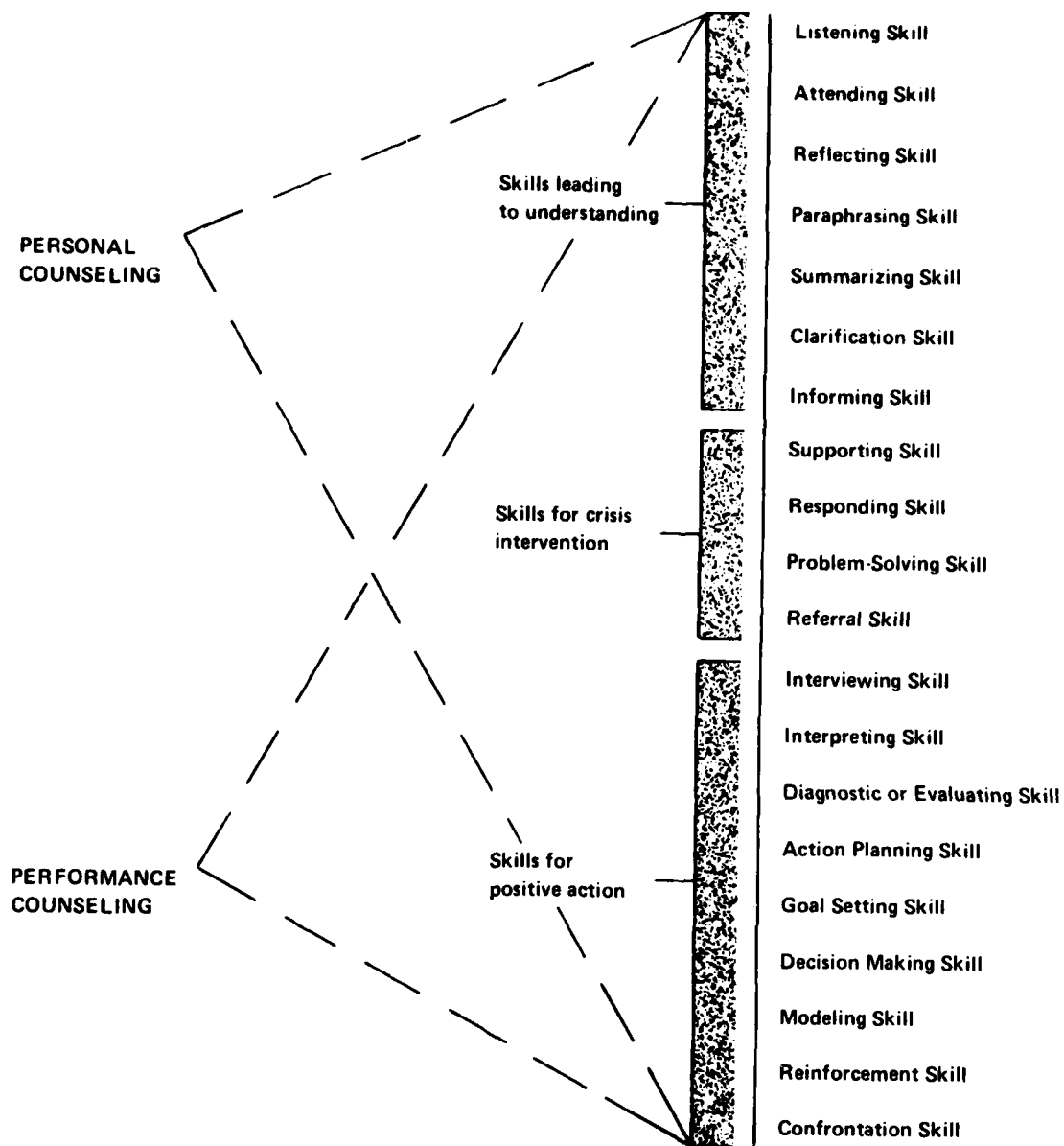


Figure 3-3. Performance Counseling Skills

may actually be transitioning into civilian life. For this reason, the personal counseling that is conducted will likely be with one's peers as well as with one's subordinates. As far as performance counseling is concerned, responsibilities fall more into the area of identifying developmental needs and codifying career paths as opposed to identifying remedial training needs. For the most part, then, leaders at this level are preoccupied with performance appraisal systems and evaluation of group performance as opposed to individual performance. The perspective thus shifts from dyadic interactions (i.e., leader/counselor with soldier/client) to group interactions (i.e., leader/counselor with the work group). Initiating skills are most helpful at this level.

Top Levels. Top-level leaders, E8s, E9s, colonels, and generals have to shift their focus from intragroup activities to intergroup activities -- to move from working within one group to working with several groups. Moreover, they have to adopt a systems perspective, concentrating on group needs and issues instead of individual needs and interests. Leaders at this level are dealing with the complex interface among groups of people; because the complexity of the job increases, the demand for personal one-on-one counseling decreases, except perhaps for those cases in which an errant subordinate or colleague evinces a problem requiring immediate attention. The greater need is for manipulating the organizational structure to permit and project approval of legitimate counseling activities at the lower levels. If lower- and middle-level leaders see that the top leadership has sanctioned their personal and performance counseling duties as purposeful, they should find it easier to assume their role as counselor.

Therefore, the skills required of Army leaders to perform their role as counselor remain the same whether they are E4s or general officers; only the emphasis changes. The skills discussed in this section apply across all levels. It would be foolish to specify discrete skills by grade level since this would suggest that some could be discounted because they are not listed. The skills do not change, but the job does, so that some skills are more relevant to certain activities than to others. But, because the counseling skills described in this monograph are essentially human relations and communication skills, they are required by anyone assuming a position that calls for a great deal of interaction with other people. Figure 3-4 depicts how the shift in emphasis implies the application of counseling skills at varying organizational levels.

Now that the skills of helping have been presented, the next issue concerns the development of these skills. The following section explores the subject of training.

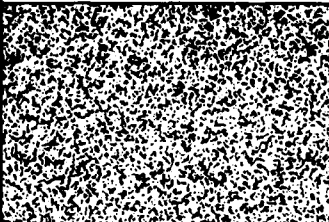


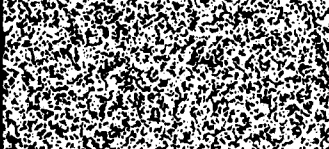


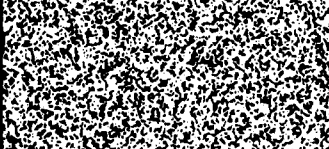


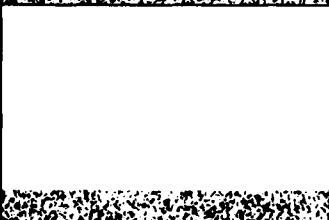


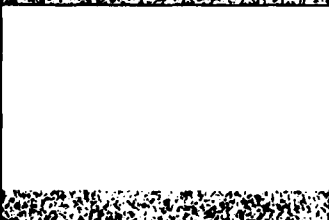


MANAGEMENT LEVEL		FOCUS/EMPHASIS		
		INDIVIDUAL	COMPANY	BATTALION
L O W	Plt Ldr PSG Sqd Ldr Tm Ldr			
				
M I D	Co CDR Bn Staff (S2, 3, 4) Special Staff 1SG's			
				
T O P	Bn CDR Bn XO S1 CSM			

Figure 3-4. Emphasis on Counseling Skills for Leaders by Organizational Level

Section Four

Training in Counseling Skills

Introduction

The previous section has addressed the competencies and skills that leaders need to function as effective counselors. Attention now focuses on training leaders in counseling skills. The issue of training people to acquire counseling skills is a controversial one, pitting professional clinicians and counselors with years of arduous educational effort and experience behind them against those who profess that such intensive preparation is not a prerequisite for competent counseling.

Support for training lay people to be counselors stems from various sources: 1) a serious and increasing manpower shortage of professional counselors precipitated by a demand for professionally trained therapists that surpassed the ability of schools and institutes to produce them -- a shortage of such proportions as to create an imminent need to equip a greater number of people with counseling skills to function as helping specialists or human relations experts; 2) a realization that many people in counseling were not seriously ill to the point of requiring long-term insight therapy but could be helped by a short-term behavioral results-oriented therapy mode; 3) a growing national commitment to public health and the prevention of illness, thus lessening the stigma attached to the need for psychiatric and mental health services; and 4) an appreciation of the fact that existing training methods could not keep pace with the demands for counseling-related services. The result was an emphasis on developing lay therapists or "indigenous helpers" to assume therapeutic roles formerly occupied exclusively by professional and certified therapists. We shall examine some of the programs that have been developed to meet the need for paraprofessional "human relations specialists" because they suggest ways to revise the present mode of counseling instruction in the Army.

Research findings in support of what is known in the counseling field as "paraprofessional" training are mounting. Studies (e.g., Carkhuff & Truax, 1965, 1967; Durlak, 1973; Ivey, 1971; Rioch, 1966, Truax & Carkhuff, 1967) indicate that lengthy professional training is not an essential prerequisite for effective counseling. Lay people can be trained to be effective counselors with just 100 hours of training devoted to the development of attending, responding, and initiating skills. In fact, Ivey (1971) reported that attending behavior

can be taught to advanced clinical psychology graduate students, paraprofessionals, and even fourth graders -- to individuals or groups of people -- and in as short a time as one hour. Truax and Carkhuff (1967) have had success with aides, secretaries, and graduate students. Kagan (1975) has taught counseling skills to physicians, medical students, counselors, psychologists, social workers, teachers, prison employees, resident hall advisors, children, paraprofessional mental health workers, dentists, supervisory personnel, parents, community leaders, veterinarians, couples, police, and psychiatric residents and nurses. Durlak (1973) summarized more than 300 references dealing with the use of nonprofessionals as therapeutic agents and came to the conclusion that "in no study have lay persons been found to be significantly inferior to professional workers" (p. 302). The fact is that nonprofessionals can quickly develop counseling skills.

Unfortunately, much of the instruction in paraprofessional training has been "of a hit or miss apprentice type, with intuition or clinical art stressed over precise and defined behaviors, and trial-and-error learning over systematic teaching" (John Moreland, cited in Ivey, 1971, p. 15). Nevertheless, there have been some innovative programs developed to train lay people to be effective counselors within relatively short periods of time (see Carkhuff & Truax, 1965; Ivey, 1971; Kagan, 1975; Lynch, Gardner & Felzer, 1968; Lynch & Gardner, 1970; Gardner & Gardner, 1971). The increase in the use of paraprofessionals in the counseling situation has promoted the emergence of a variety of programs devoted to the careful training of what Danish, D'Augelli, and Brock (1976) referred to as "human service workers." In contrast to traditional training methods that are basically didactic and aimed at long-term education, these innovative approaches emphasize the short-term, experientially based acquisition of specific skills. "The goal of these programs," said D'Augelli and Danish (1976), "is to enable the helper to create a relationship in which action-oriented change can be successful" (p. 248). Pioneers in devising such training programs include Carkhuff ("Human Resources Development Model" emphasizing interpersonal attributes), Danish and Hauer (a seven-step process encompassing knowledge, modeling, and practice), Gazda ("Human Relations Development Manual for Educators"), Goldstein (emphasis on instructions, modeling, and social reinforcement), Haase and DiMattia ("Microtraining" approach), Ivey ("Microcounseling" approach), Kagan ("Interpersonal Process Recall Method of Influencing Human Interaction" utilizing videotapes and focusing on the helper-helpee dyadic interaction), and Truax (role-playing exercises and prompt feedback).

Optimism surrounds these programs because they have been so successful in bringing both nonprofessional and paraprofessional counselors to nearly the level of expertise of highly experienced and effective counselors, but exceeding that of post-practicum and post-internship counseling and psychotherapy doctoral students, and clearly pro-

ducing significant positive client changes (Truax & Mitchell, 1971). Much of the success of these training programs is due to the fact that they emphasize the acquisition of specific counseling skills in terms of observable behaviors as opposed to the development of conceptual abilities and the mastery of general content areas. A review of several programs should illuminate this difference, in turn suggesting a counseling training model for Army leaders.

Carkhuff (1969, 1972, 1973)

Carkhuff has developed an interpersonal and problem-solving skills-focused training program that emphasizes eight main skill areas: Empathy, Respect, Warmth, Concreteness, Genuineness, Self-disclosure, Confrontation, and Immediacy of the Relationship. The program is trifocal: it stresses experiential learning of these skills, didactic instruction, and trainer modeling. Central to the training approach is specific and concrete feedback from the trainer to the trainee (i.e., from the leader to the soldier) about the trainee's behavior and its consequences. Carkhuff also places great importance upon trainer modeling of accurate empathy, nonpossessive warmth, and genuineness. The 100-hour program employs tape recordings of typical statements that might be made by a person seeking help with a problem. Using these tapes, trainees are required to make immediate therapeutic responses as if they were in a counseling session with the helpee. Trainee responses to helpee statements are rated on a scale that is then used as feedback about the trainee's performance as the counselor. The second stage of training puts the trainee through an actual role-playing exercise and is followed up by another evaluation. Finally, each trainee has a session with an actual client that is tape recorded for subsequent evaluation.

Danish and Hauer (1973)

Danish and Hauer have developed a training program emphasizing six basic skill groupings, each of which comprises a complete stage in the counseling process:

- I Understanding your need to be a helper;
- II Using effective nonverbal behavior;
- III Using effective verbal behavior;

IV Using effective self-involvement behavior
(confrontation skills);

V Understanding the communication of others;

VI Establishing effective helping relationships.

The three main components of this approach are self-understanding, knowledge of the helping skills, and experience in applying the skills. Therefore, knowledge, modeling, and practice are as essential to Danish and Hauer's program as to Carkhuff's. The process of skills building involves seven steps:

- 1) The skill is defined in behavioral terms;
- 2) The rationale for emphasizing the skill is discussed with the trainee;
- 3) A skill attainment level is specified as a criterion;
- 4) Trainers model both effective and ineffective skill performance for the trainee;
- 5) Trainees practice the skill under intensive trainer supervision;
- 6) "Homework" emphasizing continual behavioral rehearsal is assigned to aid in learning generalization; and
- 7) An evaluation session is conducted: behavioral checklists and peer and trainer feedback are utilized to assess each trainee's success in meeting minimum skill levels.

Microtraining/Microteaching/Microcounseling

Haase and DiMattia (1970a,b) and Ivey (1971) are among those who have employed a training model that has wide applicability for skills building in counseling and educational settings, and even in executive training programs in industry. These researchers have demonstrated that the skills of attending behavior, reflection of feeling, and expression of feeling can be taught by the microcounseling model to lay personnel in fire fighting, dentistry, speech therapy, personnel interviewing, sales training, and marriage and family counseling to prepare them to practice interpersonal skills on a daily basis. The value of this approach is that it focuses on isolated, concrete, behaviorally defined interviewer skills that can be described, seen in operation, practiced, and therefore evaluated. As an instructional

strategy dividing a large category of skills into simple and teachable behaviors, this model "seems the best compromise between a strategy of teaching general principles, which assumes transfer of those principles to skills, and the precise 'cookbook' approach that attempts to tell you what to do and how to do it under specific circumstances" (Brammer, 1973, p. 71).

Essentially, microcounseling focuses upon skills that are basic interpersonal communication skills in that they are skills of self-expression, listening, and attending. Microtraining is not a theory but a training model that encompasses skills training, the development of self-understanding, exposure to effective and ineffective counselor models, rationales for skill development, practice in skill development, feedback on these practice or tryout performances, and repeated tryouts until desired proficiency levels are attained. Based upon the assumption that it is difficult to develop a skill by independent study, microcounseling posits a learning strategy grounded in role playing and behavioral practice. Its purpose is to bridge the learning gap between theory and practice -- that is, between classroom lectures and the actual counseling session -- by systematically addressing specific interviewing skills.

The microtraining procedure incorporates several key concepts for skill development. It is a process of:

- 1) Experiential learning in simulation exercises;
- 2) Modeling;
- 3) Detailed instructions;
- 4) Positive reinforcement for demonstrating the skill well;
- 5) Reconditioning -- substituting an inappropriate response with an appropriate one;
- 6) Goal setting; and
- 7) Problem solving.

The typical training sequence begins with a focus on attending skills, then self-expression skills, and finally selective listening skills. Usually, the training groups are small. But the real value of the approach is that the skills can be taught in one-day to five-day workshops. A possible drawback, however, is its dependence on continued reinforcement of the appropriate skills. For instance, Haase and DiMattia (1970) discovered that newly learned skills tend to be extinguished if they are not reinforced back in the work environment.

Feedback and self-observation are the most vital aspects of the method, with self-confrontation (seeing yourself as others see you) fostering much of the learning. For this reason, videotaping is especially important. The learning principle is to develop a single skill at a time. Once a skill is isolated as a learning objective, a videotape is made of the trainee in a role-play situation; the trainee is to make no deliberate attempt to demonstrate the skill in question. The tape is evaluated for specific non-facilitative behaviors; then, behaviors depicting a positive role model of an effective counselor are identified and discussed. A new tape is made of the trainee intentionally concentrating on demonstrating the desired skill and a subsequent evaluation is also made. The process of practice, taping, and feedback is continued until the skill is refined to acceptable standards. Hopefully, by breaking down each skill into its discrete behavioral components and by addressing each singly, the trainee will internalize the skill to the point where it will be emitted spontaneously. The model is thus one of practice-critique-train-practice again-reward for appropriate behavior. Throughout, there is an emphasis on the trainer also modeling the skills she/he is teaching.

Kagan (1975)

In 1962 Kagan and his colleagues described a process similar to microtraining that seemed to have utility for effecting improvements in human interaction. They called the method Interpersonal Process Recall (IPR). After five years of applying the process and ten more of research and development, the researchers produced and validated an instructional film package and training manual. Kagan described the IPR process as follows:

What we observed, in '62, was that if a person is videorecorded while she/he is relating to another and is then shown the recording immediately after the interaction, the person is able to recall thoughts and feelings in amazing detail and in depth. Usually there was some self-evaluation as well as a detailed narrative of the impact on the person of the "other" she/he had been relating with. If a remote control stop-start switch was given to the people so that they could stop and start the playback at will, usually a wealth of understanding about some of their underlying motives, thoughts and feelings during the interpersonal transaction could be verbalized by them. We also found, in these initial experiences, that the phenomenon

could be counted on to work more reliably, and more information about underlying feelings could be elicited if the person viewed the video-tape with the help of someone especially trained in how to encourage the viewer to verbalize and elaborate on that which is recalled during the viewing. (Kagan, unpublished discussion paper, p. 1)

Key elements of the method are videotape and an inquiring colleague who acts as a catalyst to stimulate the recall, getting the counselor-trainee to describe underlying thoughts and feelings rather than encouraging critique or self-confrontation. The inquirer asks such questions as "Can you tell me what you felt at that point?" and "Can you recall more of the details of your feelings?" and "What else do you think the client thought about you at that point?"

Kagan and his associates have also explored the concept of interpersonal "developmental" tasks a trainee would have to accomplish in order to be proficient at influencing human interaction. These tasks are sequenced so that learning progresses from the least threatening to the most threatening phases. The phases are aimed at developing the following tasks:

- I. Elements of facilitating communication -- expanding one's repertoire of response modes. Four elements are focused upon: 1) exploratory questions that encourage discussion and that foster active client participation and responsibility; 2) listening skills that communicate the intense desire to understand and that foster clarification and self-observation, i.e., paraphrasing complex statements and clarifying confusing statements; 3) objective behaviors that attend to feelings, attitudes and values that foster self-awareness, i.e., labeling feelings, asking about feelings, and describing one's own feelings; and 4) honest labeling, which means being direct and frank but not brutal so as to foster self-confrontation, i.e., dealing incisively and directly with stated themes and processes. A 52-minute film is shown to explain the concepts underlying these skills, presenting examples, and then trainees are put through simulation exercises and thereafter rated on these four skills.
- II. Affect simulation -- identifying reactions to interpersonal stress. This skill grouping is designed

to help the counselor-trainee become more sensitive to the needs of other people and less threatened by stressful interpersonal situations so that it is possible to establish a helping relationship. The focus is upon asking oneself such questions as "What did I feel?"; "What did I think?"; "What were my bodily reactions?"; "When else do I feel this way?"; "What do I think the client is thinking about me?"; "Why is the client talking that way to me?"; "What should I do?"; "What do I want to do?"; and "What does the client expect of me?"

- III. Counselor recall -- studying oneself in action. After videotaping a session between trainee and "client," the inquirer encourages the trainee to re-live the experience in as much detail as possible. Trainees learn about their unexpressed feelings, their covert strategies, and interfering thoughts, attitudes, and feelings, i.e., fearing to offend, fearing that an interaction might become too emotional or that the client would cry, how they were trying to impress the other person. Recall interviews also show how trainees can perceive important, subtle, and numerous client messages but give no indication that they have perceived them; thus, the method teaches one how to recognize client messages and how to look for covert behaviors and processes.
- IV. Inquirer training -- peer supervision. This phase involves learning the inquirer role. The learning principle here is to learn by discovery, i.e., by discovering how to be assertive and confrontative without being hostile or judgmental. The inquirer asks such questions as, "How did you want that other person to perceive you?" or "Were there any other thoughts going through your mind?" Trainees proceed through a series of structured exercises in which they learn and practice the skills of the inquirer role. Eventually, the trainees can take over the inquirer role from the supervisor to do the probing questioning in phase III.
- V. Client recall -- feedback from the consumer. This phase is designed to provide client feedback and to afford the trainee additional experi-

ence using exploratory probes, the primary mode used in recall. Here, the trainee acts as inquirer with another trainee's client; this session may be taped or the counselor-trainee may view the recall between the client and inquirer through a one-way mirror. Because the inquirer is a peer and not the supervisor, the feedback is considered less threatening than might be expected. Trainees learn to be both confrontative and supportive, to ask questions that might otherwise be embarrassing or bold but that are not in this context because they are asked with concern and interest.

- VI. Mutual recall-- the relationship as content. In this phase, trainees learn how to use the helping relationship itself to gain understanding and skill development. Counselor and client are videotaped, but the recall process here has them remain together during the subsequent probing by the inquirer to recall how each thought, felt, and perceived the other. Thus, the trainee and client are encouraged to talk about each other to each other. By learning to become more involved, concerned, assertive, and honest with their clients, the trainees as counselors can use the ongoing counselor-client relationship as an example to help clients understand their relationships with others in their life.

The IPR method begins with exercise in skill definition and skill practice in a relatively non-threatening forum. But the refinement of skills is not considered enough; interpersonal awareness is also an important learning outcome. Film simulation is therefore introduced to allow people to talk about and label the kinds of feelings and stresses that ordinarily would evoke too much anxiety to permit acknowledgement, awareness, and understanding. As anxiety is reduced, trainees are able to consider, learn, and use new behaviors. Meeting in small groups with others to describe reactions to simulated situations allows the trainees to focus on others' covert behaviors. Also, by examining actual behavioral samples, it is possible to obtain clues about one's own perceptions, thoughts, aspirations, and feeling that may not have been expressed. The process provides an opportunity to explore complex human dynamics with the aid of abundant feedback, fostering learning by discovery through continued practice of interviewing skills.

All of the training methods just described isolate specific counseling skills. Ivey (1971) summarized the importance of looking at discrete behaviors for the development of counseling competency:

Microtraining techniques should be considered as a structural or methodological approach to interviewing training. The skeleton or structure of microcounseling gives one a framework for a relatively precise behavioral skill of counseling, shortens interview length, and provides practice until a skill is learned thoroughly. Video or other types of feedback techniques provide important support for learning within the microcounseling structure. (p. 5)

It should be obvious that counseling can be taught successfully if it is identified as a skill as opposed to a cognitive content area. By concentrating on (a) specific, observable, and behaviorally defined skills, (b) the practical relationship of these skills to improved interpersonal functioning, (c) continual practice of the skills in actual or simulated role-playing exercises, and (d) nonthreatening but frank and constructive feedback about skill performance, it is possible to teach people how to be effective counselors. Exposing counselor-trainees (i.e., Army leaders) to lectures about the nature of counseling can increase leaders' awareness of the counseling process, but it does not guarantee their successful performance as counselors. The innovative approaches to counselor training just described go further toward guaranteeing such an outcome. To indicate serious acknowledgment of the significance of the counseling role as a part of the leader's job, the Army might consider some of these models for counseling instruction in the service schools.

Section Five

Summary and Conclusions

Summary

The preceding discussion presents an argument for making the counseling function an integral aspect of the leadership or managerial role. It is common to view the counseling role as particular to a clinical setting wherein the counselor acts as therapist to "cure" the client/counselee/helpee, thus making counseling a somewhat unique activity. Conversely, the counseling role can actually be viewed more broadly as a relationship between someone needing assistance and someone willing and able to help. The helping role, whether it be attached to a counselor, consultant, friend, supervisor, or commander, is both (1) a process of learning how to cope with and to resolve problems, or about personal and professional needs, values, goals, preferences, and (2) a social process fostering effective and constructive human interaction. Thus, helping is an endeavor that aims to promote problem solving as well as improved independent action and interdependent relationships. Army leaders, who are faced with solving problems, improving or maintaining morale and performance levels, motivating soldiers, developing skill proficiency and understanding, and facilitating cooperation, can definitely benefit from having counseling training become a major part of leadership development programs. Counseling seeks to increase insight and self-awareness, to identify problems, needs, and aspirations, to establish goals and action plans for achieving these goals, and to generate feedback about feelings, thoughts, statements, and behaviors. It is a results- and action-oriented activity. Simply stated, counseling skills can be a vehicle by which Army leaders can help the soldier identify the problem, clarify, explore, and, finally, make specific plans.

The principal tool of the helping relationship is the helper, i.e., the leader. The effective leader is a role model who projects a developed sense of personal values, needs, and goals; and an understanding of feelings, how they affect behavior, and how they are transferred onto others. The leader is also a change agent, intent on improving human interaction, and thus someone who facilitates personal and professional development. The leader is able to behaviorally demonstrate the critical dimensions of the helping process: empathy, respect, concreteness, genuineness, self-disclosure, confrontation, and a focus on the present. Empathy, the ability to see the soldier's world from his/her vantage point, embodies understanding and promotes

self-exploration. It is demonstrated by an intense concentration on the soldier's verbal and nonverbal behavior and is expressed in statements reflecting the language and tone of the soldier's statements. Respect demonstrates that the leader believes that the soldier can deal effectively with the problem at hand; such respect is conveyed to him/her by withholding advice temporarily, by a lack of evaluative commentary, and by giving the soldier one's undivided attention. This respect increases the soldier's self-evaluation and self-confidence in his/her ability to arrive at a solution. The leader communicates respect by summarizing and paraphrasing statements and by avoiding chat, superficial talk. Concreteness is displayed by focusing on specifics in an attempt to clarify and explore the problem area. Genuineness (nonphoniness) also promotes exploration; it is reflected in a congruency between what the helper says and does, a congruency denoting authenticity. Self-disclosure is characterized by offering personal reactions, attitudes, values, and experiences when such actions are relevant to self-exploration. Confrontation, informing the soldier about discrepancies and contradictions between statements and actions, provides him/her with valuable information when it is used constructively, directly, explicitly, frankly, but nonjudgmentally. Lastly, the soldier establishes a sense of immediacy by focusing on the here-and-now.

Effective counselors are not necessarily those people who inherently possess the attributes just described. As indicated already, people can be trained to be effective counselors. Training programs emphasizing paraprofessional training of lay people in counseling/interviewing/communications/human relations skills have come into vogue in recent years. These programs seek to train lay people to demonstrate empathy, respect, warmth, and genuineness in a manner that conveys a concern for concrete statements, relevant self-disclosure, productive confrontation, and a focus on the present. Important variables in these training programs are:

- (1) An appreciation for the broad application of helping skills.
- (2) The combination of didactic and experiential learning.
- (3) An emphasis on the acquisition of skills.
- (4) A breakdown of the generic helping dimensions into discrete, observable, behaviorally defined skill components.
- (5) A learning model that concentrates sequentially on isolated skills, role play and actual practice of skills.
- (6) Constant and conscious trainer modeling of the skills.
- (7) Videotaping and self-observation.

(8) Group discussion of trainees' attitudes and difficulties regarding the training role.

The value of the approach is as an effective teaching methodology that highlights counseling skills as specific interpersonal communication skills.

A Behavioral Model of the Effective and Ineffective Leader-Counselor

Earlier it was stated that explicit behaviors were the objective of this exploration of counseling skills. It is now appropriate to examine what the effective counselor might look like in some behavioral detail. Referring to studies (Hackney & Nye, 1973; Schmidt and Strong, 1970) that investigated effective counselor behaviors, it is possible to describe leader behaviors leading to effective counseling:

The counseling session begins by having the soldier appear at the leader's office at an appointed time. The leader would have prepared for the session by becoming somewhat familiar with the soldier's background and by alerting someone to intercept incoming phone calls. Upon the soldier's arrival, the leader would greet the individual with a hand-shake and, if appropriate, address the person by his/her first name. Motioning to the soldier to be seated, the leader would close the office door to ensure privacy. At the outset of the interview, the leader would inform the soldier about how the session was to be structured (e.g., what the time limits were, whether or not notes would be taken or a tape recorder used to record the discussion, and the limits of confidentiality). He/she would then consciously work to establish rapport and to demonstrate sincere interest to convince the soldier of his/her willingness to listen. The leader would convey a sense of friendliness and sincerity by appearing neat, relaxed, and interested.

Foremost in the leader's mind would be to get the soldier to the point where she/he felt comfortable enough to talk about the relevant issue. The leader could do this by making an encouraging statement, such as, "I've noticed that you've been distracted lately. Is there something on your mind?" By asking indirect questions first, and then moving on to direct and logical questions, probing questions designed to elicit particular information, leading questions, loaded questions aimed at creating just enough stress to get

the soldier to explore emotional issues, and hypothetical questions (e.g., "What if you were . . . ?") to ascertain creative responses, the leader would work at clarifying the problem area, always keeping in mind the need to ask questions that were clear, relevant, and meaningful.

The leader would pay special attention to active listening behavior by assuming an attentive sitting position, by listening carefully, by conveying an appropriate degree of warmth in facial expressions (i.e., smiling occasionally), by using expressive hand gestures, and by speaking fluently and with confidence. Making an effort not to interrupt the soldier, the leader would point out contradictions in reasoning, paraphrase the soldier's statements, and summarize the main points of the discussion. The leader would also communicate attentiveness by maintaining eye contact with the soldier, by nodding his/her head frequently in an affirmative way, and by using animated facial expressions to mirror the kind and intensity of feeling being expressed by the soldier. Using a soft but firm tone of voice, a moderated rate of speech, occasionally using such verbal reinforcers as "mm-hmmm," the leader would facilitate discussion by fitting comments and questions to the topic, by taking care not to jump topics, by talking in complete and concise sentences, and by not rambling.

The leader would observe and listen to both verbal and nonverbal behavior on the part of the soldier, in particular by paying attention to the soldier's self-perceptions, thoughts and feelings about others (especially significant others), goals, ambitions, defenses, values and attitudes. To capture nonverbals, the leader would attend to the seven dimensions of nonverbal behavior described by Knapp (1972): body motion; physical characteristics such as height, weight, general attractiveness, touching behavior; paralanguage (vocal cues accompanying verbal utterances); proxemics or amount of physical space between the leader and soldier; artifacts such as clothes, eyeglasses, make-up, perfume; and environmental factors including furniture, lighting, temperature, and noise. The leader would also note the soldier's defensive behaviors, evaluative and judgmental statements, controlling actions, manipulative behaviors, indications of disinterest, projection of superiority, and dogmatic statements.

In summary, the effective leader-counselor would ask open-ended but direct questions, not allow too much small talk, give direct answers to specific questions, restate the main thoughts and feelings expressed by the soldier, watch for pauses, concentrate on nonverbal clues, deliver precise feedback, and take pains to reinforce goal-directed behavior. Thus, the effective leader as counselor would successfully display attending, responding, and initiating behaviors.

From the above description, it is not difficult to infer behaviors that characterize ineffective counselors. The model of the ineffective leader-counselor is someone who is tense, awkward, uneasy, unsure, fearful, cold, strict, dominating, or too formal. The following would also be characteristic: unkempt attire, speech that is unclear, facial expressions that are unanimated, posture that is either slouched or too stiff, a voice that is monotonically flat, and a countenance that appears bored or inattentive to the soldier. In addition, the ineffective leader-counselor may shrug the shoulders often, frown inappropriately or laugh nervously, fidget or else remain stiff, speak in incomplete sentences, ask vague and irrelevant questions, interrupt, make self-deprecating statements, fail to summarize the main points, do most of the talking, repeat him/herself, speak inaudibly, too loudly, too fast, or allow the discussion to ramble.

Conclusions

It should be clear by now that counseling ability is not a composite of ephemeral traits but a collection of skills that can be isolated and taught systematically and effectively to people who function in a variety of roles outside a strictly clinical and therapeutic context. Counseling skills are helping skills, and helping skills develop interpersonal interaction skills, especially communication skills. Clearly, any job involving a high degree of interpersonal contact will be performed better if the job incumbent develops helping skills. The leader's or manager's job is a particularly apropos target because it involves substantial human relations, counseling, and communications responsibilities.

With the connection between the leadership role and the counseling role clearly established in this monograph, we can state affirmatively the appropriateness -- if not the necessity -- of emphasizing the counseling dimension of the leadership role. One way to emphasize this relationship is to address counseling skills courses in a methodical way as part of leadership and management development programs. The various skills inherent in interviewing, conducting performance appraisals, coaching subordinates, developing others, building team work, resolving intra- and interpersonal conflict, and im-

proving unit effectiveness imply that leaders be able to respond to subordinates' needs with understanding, active listening, and clear communications in order to seek solutions to predicaments and problems and to formulate action plans. In some cases, the emphasis is on clarifying and exploring the situation; in others, it is on planning and problem solving; in still others, on self-expression and ventilation of feelings. Whether the helpee is an individual, a group, or even the total organization, the skills necessary to carry out these activities are the basic helping skills discussed in this monograph.

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